CANADIAN CIVICS

R. S. JENKINS

ALBERTA EDITION

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CANADIAN CIVICS

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Honour all men. Love the brotherhood. Fear God. Honour the King.—*Bible*

ALBERTA EDITION

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PREFACE.

One of the most important duties of the state is to provide for the education of the children who will some day be its masters. Democracy with all its good and evil must be accepted as the basis of modern government. Though here and there a philosopher may scoff at the "suffrage of the plow," yet social order and stability must henceforth depend on either the tolerance or the good will of the masses of the people. The time when a small educated class could safeguard the glories of civilized life and the arts by the use of physical or moral force, is rapidly disappearing. Therefore, it is a self-evident fact that the state ought to teach its future citizens the worth of our civilization and the ways of preserving it from impairment, and of assisting in its progress. We must no longer, as those of an earlier age, walk calmly over the surface underneath which slumbers the volcano of popular passion. The fruits of centuries of toil are too precious to be exposed to any possibility of injury. There must be a means sought for training our people in social and civic responsibility.

Government is the foundation on which the splendid fabric of our civilization is upreared. Therefore, it is a subject about which the pupils in the schools should receive very definite instruction. In the present little book an effort is made to present the elementary facts about our system of government in the simplest form, so that those who do not pass beyond the senior grades of the public school or the junior grades of the high school, may go out into the world with some adequate conception of what will be their duties and responsibilities as Canadian citizens.

Montreal, Jan. 1, 1909.

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CANADIAN CIVICS.

PART I.—NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

TOPIC I.

The Outside Nations and the Empire.

1. The Nations.

When we look abroad upon the world, we observe that it has numerous divisions which bear the name of "countries" and which are occupied by "nations." Some of these divisions are large, such as the United States and Russia, while others are small, such as Switzerland and Greece. But we must not estimate power and importance solely by extent of territory. Thus Germany, though occupying a portion of Europe of only moderate area, is regarded as one of the great nations of the world.

There are, however, very few countries strong enough to defend themselves successfully against a foreign foe. The weaker nations owe their independence sometimes to the sense of justice of the more powerful, but more often to the

mutual jealousy existing among these latter. None is willing to see any of its neighbours grow very strong. Consequently, if a smaller country is invaded by a more powerful one there is probability that outside assistance will be given the former in one way or another.

Thus efforts are constantly being made to preserve what is commonly called the "balance of power." The stronger nations of the world are known as the "great powers." They are Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austro-Hungary, Russia, United States and Japan.

2. The Kinds of Government.

After what has been said, we can describe in a general way what a "nation" is. It is a united body of people occupying a certain territory which is called a "country." Further, matters are so arranged that one man, or a small group of men, acts as its head, and is its highest representative in its dealings with other nations. Now the question is, how can a very large number of people, in some cases hundreds of millions, be induced to act together so that they will form one nation? The answer

is that this result is brought about by what is called "government," and we shall be studying in this book what our government is and how it holds our nation together.

To us in our day it would seem quite natural for a number of persons to agree to work together and to help one another in many ways, such as giving aid in defence against enemies, forming treaties with friends, and building roads and bridges or making other improvements. But we learn from history that the present arrangements by which these and many other things are done, were arrived at only after centuries of effort. Moreover, some nations have not made as much progress in government as we, and we ourselves, we shall see, have not yet reached perfection.

If we read history and observe how governments have grown up, we shall be inclined to place them in two classes. One class will include those in which the head of the nation, generally called a king or an emperor, is always a member of a particular family, and in which the son, no matter what sort of man he may be, usually

succeeds the father. This kind of government is called "monarchical," and it is that of Great Britain, Germany and Russia. The other kind of government is the "republican," where the head, often known as the "president," is chosen from the general body of the people by the citizens themselves or by persons directly representing them. This is the form existing in the United States and France. It is worthy of note that often men who are born poor and in a humble position rise to be presidents of the republics.

The better division, however, is into the two classes, "despotic" and "popular." In a despotic government, the ruler and a small group of men associated with him carry on the business of the nation without consulting the wishes of the people, while, in a popular government, the rulers, whoever they may be, must govern as the people wish. The government of Great Britain is monarchical and popular, while that of the United States is republican and popular. There are not many purely despotic governments now in the world, but some of the monarchical

governments of Asia and Africa and some of the republican governments of South America still belong to that class.

3. The Empire and the Colonies.

The name "Great Britain" is ordinarily used as the short form for the full title, "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland." Great Britain is the ruling state, or division, in the Empire to which we belong. In dealings with other nations, except in commercial and some other matters, Great Britain acts for the whole Empire. Divisions of the Empire, such as Canada, may have representatives in making treaties and arrangements with other nations on any matter which closely concerns them. But these are appointed as representatives of Great Britain as well, and are considered as such by foreign states.

It is plain that at present a great change is going on in the Empire. Some think that after a time the several divisions that are in the same position as ourselves, will be placed on an equal footing with the ruling division, Great Britain, and that some way will be devised of

making them all work together as one nation, when dealing with the rest of the world. Others believe that this plan of "allied nations" is not practicable, and that, if we try to carry it out, it will lead to the breaking up of the Empire. Here is one of our great problems and no one yet can see a good solution.

Our Empire is not an "empire" in the strict sense of the term. It has received this name solely on account of its enormous size, for its head is not an emperor but a king. Though the king is called an emperor as well, it is only as the ruler of India that he has a right to the title.

All the divisions of the Empire, except the British Isles and India, were originally called "colonies," or settlements, because emigrants went from Great Britain to take up land, or *settle*, in them. All of them were at first governed by men whom Great Britain appointed for the purpose. The colonists had very little to do with the management of their own public affairs.

But afterwards those colonies which possessed a sufficiently large and suitable population were

allowed to govern themselves, and they have all established popular forms of government as much like that of Great Britain as possible. Such colonies have long been known as self-governing colonies, but they have lately received the special name of "dominions." This is the name which we chose when we united the separate colonies of Canada, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia into one large country, the Dominion of Canada.

The word "colony" we do not like, and we usually speak of ourselves as a "nation." Some object to the name "nation," because it ordinarily means an "independent nation" or "sovereign state," and we do not claim to be that, but desire to be part of the Empire. Its use may be defended, because it is the nearest suitable word for a new condition of affairs, and we give the term a special meaning, just as the people of the United States have given a special meaning to the word "state." A "state" like New York is not an independent state, but is subject to the government of the whole United States at Washington. The chief "dominions" in the Empire besides Canada, are Australia

(called "Commonwealth)," New Zealand, Newfoundland, and Union of South Africa.

On the other hand, the colonies which have not a population suitable for self-government, as those situated in the tropics where the native races are not highly civilized, are placed, either wholly or partly, under the administration of persons chosen by Great Britain. Such are called "crown colonies."

But sometimes native races are left under their own rulers, Great Britain maintaining a general oversight through a specially appointed representative. This kind of government is known as a "protectorate." Sometimes also Great Britain conducts the government of a country which in strict law is the dependency of another nation, but which in fact is a part of the British Empire. Thus Egypt and Cyprus, though they belong in name to the Turkish Empire, are really ruled by Great Britain.

It may be said that in the British Empire there is every kind of government from the most highly popular to the most despotic. But whatever may be the form, Great Britain

endeavours to administer it in such a manner as to make possible for each of the vast number of races and tribes under the imperial sway the greatest amount of happiness and prosperity.

NOTES.—The name "Great Britain" has been employed throughout. But it is to be observed that the name "England" is often used for the whole "United Kingdom," because of its being that of the largest division. The term "Britain" is also employed. "Imperial Government" is frequently used for "Government of Great Britain" or "British Government," because it is the supreme or highest government of the Empire. "Greater Britain" is a common newspaper term for the colonies. Its origin is obvious. The actual title of the king is: "George the Fifth, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India."

QUESTIONS.

1. What nations are called the "great powers"? Why are they so called?

2. What does "government" do for the nation?

3. Mention and describe the chief kinds of government.

4. What is an empire? Why do we call the British Empire by that name?

5. What are "crown colonies," "protectorates," and "dominions"? Give examples of each.

6. Read over and try to understand the lines quoted from Shakespeare.

ENGLAND.

This royal throne of kings, this sceptered isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise,
This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war,
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands,
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England.

—Shakespeare, King Richard II, Act II, Sc. 1.

TOPIC II.

THE DOMINION AND THE PROVINCES.

1. Federal System of Government.

Our system of government is what is known as a confederation, and in this respect it resembles that of the United States and Australia and differs from that of Great Britain and France. The settled part of Canada is divided into nine provinces, each having a government of its own.

A provincial government has the duty of looking after certain definite matters which concern the province alone, and which it is believed can best be managed by such a body of local men familiar with local needs. In a country of vast extent such as ours, the provinces differ very much from one another, in their position, some being on the sea and others inland; in their physical features, some being mountainous and others consisting of prairie; and in their inhabitants, some containing chiefly people whose ancestors came from the British Isles, others possessing a more mixed population, and one, Quebec, having a great majority of persons of French descent. Consequently, it is plain that with respect to many things laws must be different in different provinces in order to suit the varying conditions.

On the other hand, all matters which were thought by the founders of our constitution to concern the whole body of Canadians, or those about which it was felt more suitable laws could be made by a group of men representing the entire country, were left to be managed

by a central government, usually called the Dominion or Federal Government.

2. Subjects of Dominion Legislation.

Now in order that there should be no doubt as to which government, Dominion or provincial, had the right to make laws in regard to particular matters, it was agreed that the Dominion should deal with everything which was not expressly assigned to the control of the provinces. Then "for greater certainty" there was drawn up the following list of subjects about which the government of the Dominion alone has the power to "legislate" (that is, make laws):

(1) The public debt and property, (2) trade and commerce, (3) the raising of money by any kind of taxation, (4) the borrowing of money, (5) the postal service, (6) the taking of the census, (7) military and naval matters, (8) the payment of the "civil service," that is, the clerks and other officials employed by the government, (9) lighthouses, (10) navigation and shipping, (11) quarantine and marine hospitals, (12) fisheries, (13) ferries, except when

entirely within a province, (14) currency and coinage, (15) banking and paper money, (16) savings banks, (17) weights and measures, (18) bills of exchange and promissory notes, (19) interest, (20) legal tender, that is, what shall be accepted as money in payment for anything, (21) bankruptcy, (22) patents for inventions, (23) copyrights on books, etc., (24) Indians and Indian lands, (25) naturalization, that is, the giving of the rights of citizenship to foreigners, (26) marriage and divorce, (27) the criminal law, except the constitution of the courts of law, (28) penitentiaries, (29) matters expressly stated as not belonging to the provinces.

3. Subjects of Provincial Legislation.

To the provincial governments has been assigned the definite list of subjects given below. They cannot legislate about any matter not mentioned in this list; but they alone can legislate about those which are included in it. The list is,

(1) The changing of the constitution of the province, except in regard to the office of

lieutenant-governor, (2) direct taxation, (3) the borrowing of money for the province, (4) the civil service of the province, (5) the public lands, if the province owns its lands, (6) the prisons and reformatories of the province, (7) hospitals, asylums, and charitable institutions, (8) municipal institutions, (9) licenses such as those of taverns, shops, and auctioneers, (10) local works and undertakings, except lines of steamships, railways, canals, telegraphs, and other works and undertakings extending outside the province, and such works which, although wholly inside the province, are declared by the Dominion parliament to be for the general advantage of Canada, (11) the incorporation of companies for business in the province, (12) the solemnization of marriage, (13) property and civil rights, (14) the administration of justice and procedure in civil matters in the courts, (15) punishment by fine and imprisonment, in case any provincial law is broken, and (16) generally all matters of a merely local or private nature.

The subject of education must be added to this provincial list. But if a province before

it entered confederation has passed laws to establish separate schools, it must always allow these schools to be carried on. Consequently, the Roman Catholics of Ontario and the Protestants of Quebec can never be forced to give up the separate schools which they at present possess. Further, the subjects of agriculture and immigration may be dealt with by both the Dominion and the provinces. But if the Dominion law and the provincial law do not agree in whole or in part, the Dominion law is the one which has force.

What happens if a province enacts a law on a subject with which it has no right to deal? If a person breaks such a law, can he be punished? He can allow the matter to go to trial in a court, and it is there determined whether the province has a right to enact such a law or not. If the province has no such right, the person wins his case and cannot be punished. In very important matters a suit of this kind will be carried from a lower court to a higher, until it is finally decided by the highest court in the Empire, the Privy Council in England.

4. Dominion Control of Provincial Legislation.

But there is another way by which not only a law beyond the right of a province to make, but even one which comes within its right, can be entirely set aside. This is to be found in what is known as the power of "disallowance." The Dominion government may, if it desires, "disallow," or set aside, any provincial law, provided that it does so within a year after receiving a copy of such law from the province. This is a power which should not be used very often, because it is very natural for the people of a province to resent what looks like too much interference with their own local affairs.

5. Imperial Control of Dominion Legislation.

The government of Great Britain has likewise the right to disallow a law enacted by the Dominion, if it is considered that this law will cause injury to the Empire, is contrary to treaties that have been made with foreign nations, or is beyond the right of our parliament to pass.

6. Uncertainties as to Dominion and Provincial Powers.

Now it may seem as if everything had been carefully provided for, so that no dispute could ever arise between a province and the Dominion in regard to the subjects about which they have a right to legislate. But it is just here that some of the greatest difficulties have been encountered. Many matters were not carefully enough stated in the constitution, and, as a consequence, the courts have had to do a great deal of work in determining whether the Dominion or the provinces have the power to legislate in certain cases. For example, one of the very important questions for a long time in doubt was, how far the provinces could go in making laws about the sale of intoxicating liquors. This question has been at last decided, and it is now known that the provinces are allowed to restrict and practically to prohibit the sale in certain well-defined ways.

In concluding this topic, we may observe that the laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than

have the laws of the Dominion. For what our city or other local municipality asks from us or does for us, how our schools are conducted, how property is kept or sold, and a vast number of such matters as most intimately concern us, all depend upon the laws, good or bad, which our province makes.

NOTE.—The "constitution" is the name given to the whole body or collection of rules in accordance with which the government of a country is conducted. In Great Britain these rules are not anywhere written out together in one document. They are gathered from what British governments have done in the past even back to distant ages, and have come to be pretty well understood. If there is doubt as to what to do in a particular case, or if there really is no rule, a certain decision is adopted by the government as to the matter. This decision may lead up to a new rule for the future, and is called a "precedent." In the United States, however, a great number of the rules of government are written out in a formal document, and are changed rarely and with difficulty. So we speak of Great Britain as having an "unwritten" constitution, and of the United States as having largely a "written" constitution. Canada has a written constitution in the "British North America Act," which was passed by the parliament of Great Britain at our request in 1867, so that the various separate provinces of those days might be formed into a union or "confederation," and be able to work together with a federal government over them all. But there are a multitude of points which our written constitution does not cover, and so we follow and establish precedents as well, and also go back to the precedents set by the governments of Great Britain.

Questions.

1. Why is the federal system of government suitable for Canada?

2. Tell in a general way what classes of subjects come under the jurisdiction of the Dominion and of the provincial governments. Illustrate your answer by examples.

3. To what extent can the provinces deal with the subjects of education and immigration?

4. How can the Dominion control the legislation of the provinces? How can Great Britain control Dominion legislation?

5. What difficulty has arisen in the working of our federal system?

6. What is meant by the "constitution"? What is a "precedent"?

7. Write a composition taking as your subject the thought contained in the following lines:

The State.

What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or laboured mound,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.

No! men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude,—
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain.

—*William Jones.*

TOPIC III.

How the Laws are Made.

1. Legislation.

In the government of a country there are three kinds of work to be done. One is the making of the laws, and another is the carrying out of the laws. The third kind of work is that which the courts do in deciding what the law is in particular cases that are brought before them.

Let us for the present consider only the first kind of work, the making of the laws. We may well do so, because in our country the men who carry out the laws are also among those who make the laws. In the United States, on the other hand, the men who carry out the laws,

namely, the president and his cabinet, have little part in making them.

2. Parliament.

The body of men who legislate for the Dominion is called the "parliament" of Canada. Parliament consists of the king and the two houses of parliament, the Senate and the House of Commons. The king cannot, of course, be present here in Canada, and so some one is appointed to act for him. This representative of the king is known as the governor-general. Yet it must always be remembered that the king is considered to be the direct ruler of Canada. All laws are made in his name, and not in that of the governor-general. Moreover, the governor-general is said to give not his own but the king's assent to a bill, before it becomes law.

3. Governor-General.

The governor-general is appointed by the British government, and is generally some well known man in Great Britain. He is usually a member of the House of Lords. No Canadian has ever been appointed, but it cannot be said that any rule has been made as yet in regard

to the matter. Some day the question will come up for decision, and there will be a precedent set either for or against the appointment of a Canadian to this high office.

The governor-general acts towards the houses of parliament of Canada in exactly the same way as the king acts towards the houses of parliament of Great Britain. The king nowadays has no power to do anything but what the houses of parliament wish. If they pass a bill, he must assent to it.

He does not sit in either of the houses, and is quite apart from them. But the leader of the government, that is, the person whom the House of Commons is willing to obey, is expected to tell the king about all important matters that are being discussed in parliament. The king can give advice to the leader of the government, and can warn him, if he thinks that he is leading parliament to make mistakes, but cannot refuse to do what parliament wishes. All discussions between the king and the leader of the government are kept absolutely secret. So nobody really knows what the king's opinions are.

Since he must do what parliament and its leader desire, he is never blamed if a mistake is made. Consequently, there is at the head of the nation a person who is regarded as above and beyond all the fierce struggle of politics. If the nation is dissatisfied, it blames only the leader of the government and those who support him in parliament.

Sometimes, however, our governor-general, when a bill is sent to him after it has passed the two Houses, may say that he does not give the king's assent to it, but reserves it for the king's decision, that is, of course, for the decision of the government of Great Britain. The governor-general will never reserve a bill, unless he has a good reason for so doing, such as, believing that it will be hurtful to the Empire as a whole, that it is contrary to treaties with foreign nations, or that it is beyond the right of our parliament to pass. Two years are allowed for the British government to consider whether the king's assent shall be given to a bill reserved in this way. If it is given, the bill becomes law, but, if not, the bill does not become law.

As has been mentioned before, the British government can likewise disallow a law already passed and assented to by the governor-general. So its powers are very great, but they are used carefully, or there would soon arise much ill-feeling in Canada against Britain. In the same way there would be ill-feeling in the provinces, if the Dominion government used its power of disallowance without proper care. All trouble is usually avoided, because the governments concerned earnestly strive to meet one another's views as far as possible. In the end matters can generally be arranged in a very friendly way, even when the governments have not at first been in agreement upon certain points.

4. The Senate.

It is in the houses of parliament that the laws are made; for it is now plain that the governor-general, although he is at the head of the nation, has scarcely any real power. Of the two Houses, the Senate is very much less important than the Commons. The Senate has, however, the same right of legislation as the Commons, except in one important matter. But usually it

does not try to do much work beyond accepting after more or less discussion and amendment the bills already passed by the House of Commons. Later we shall learn why it is that the Senate is not a more important parliamentary body.

5. The House of Commons.

The laws are really made in the House of Commons. The leader of the government is nearly always a member of this House and guides it in its work. If he should happen to be a member of the Senate, he must have some one recognized as the leader of the House of Commons in his place. But such an arrangement is not a safe one in our parliament. Besides the leader of the government, most of the members of his cabinet, that is, those who are directly associated with him in the government of the country, have seats in the House of Commons. We usually speak of the leader and his cabinet as the "government." They must either have the support of a majority of the members of the House of Commons, or give up their places to those who are able to obtain a majority.

It is their duty, while they are in power, to see that the laws which are necessary for carrying on the work of the nation, are properly passed by parliament. Bills introduced at the wish of the government are called "government measures." They may be brought in either by members of the government themselves or by private members in whom they have confidence. If a government measure does not pass, the government must resign or ask the governor-general to allow a new election to be held. Therefore, the defeat of a government measure in the House is a very serious matter and hardly ever happens. For the government usually finds out beforehand whether its supporters are willing to allow the bill to pass or not.

But sometimes the members of the government may feel that a certain measure which they desire to bring in, is so important that it must be placed before the House, and yet that it is in danger of being rejected. What they will probably do, will be to endeavour to put this measure, if possible, in such form

as to render it more acceptable to their followers and induce them to change their minds. Moreover, supporters of the government do not like to see their side beaten, and besides, members of the House do not usually wish to have an election held before the regular time, because elections are uncertain and expensive. Therefore, the government generally finds it an easy matter to persuade its followers to assist in passing all the legislation that is required.

In addition to the measures which the government introduces, a great many bills are brought in by private members. Some of these pass, many do not pass, while others never really come before the House at all. We shall be able to understand this part of the subject better when later we study how parliament does its work.

NOTE.—Before a proposed law has passed the houses of parliament and has been assented to by the governor-general, it is known as a "bill." Afterwards it is called an "act of parliament" or a "statute." An act of parliament may come into force as a "law," as soon as it has passed the Houses and received the royal assent, or it may be intended to come into force at a later time.

Questions.

1. What are the three kinds of work to be done in the governing of a country?

2. Of what does parliament consist?

3. By whom is the governor-general appointed? What are his duties? Who is the governor-general at the present time?

4. When may the governor-general "reserve" a bill?

5. What special meaning does the word "government" have in politics?

6. What are "government measures"?

7. What is the difference between a "bill" and an "act"?

8. Commit to memory the following lines:

You ask me, why, tho' ill at ease,
  Within this region I subsist,
  Whose spirits falter in the mist,
And languish for the purple seas.

It is the land that freemen till,
  That sober-suited Freedom chose,
  The land, where girt with friends or foes
A man may speak the thing he will;

A land of settled government,
  A land of just and old renown,
  Where Freedom slowly broadens down
From precedent to precedent.

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC IV.

How Parliament Does Business.

1. The Speaker.

We shall now take up more fully the study of the two houses of parliament, and see how they carry on their work and how the members of each are chosen. We shall speak chiefly of the House of Commons, and mention the Senate only when the latter differs in some important respect from the Commons.

The House of Commons is like any public meeting, and must have a chairman to see that business is conducted in a proper way. The chairman is called the "speaker." He is elected by the House, when it first meets after the parliamentary elections. He is one of the supporters of the government, because the government have the majority in the House, and thus can always secure the election of one of their own friends. But as soon as he becomes speaker, he is expected to be impartial, that is, to see that all members are fairly treated in the debates, no matter whether they are supporters of the

government or not. There is also elected a deputy or assistant speaker.

The speaker of the Senate is not elected by the Senate, but is appointed by the "governor-general-in-council," which means, as we shall find out later, the government.

2. Other Officers of the Houses.

There are certain other officers in the Houses, who are not members of parliament, but are appointed to help with the carrying on of business. For example, there is a clerk, with many assistants under him, who has charge of the journals or records of what the House has done, the translation of documents, and a great many other such matters.

Another officer in the Commons is the sergeant-at-arms, who is in some respects the policeman of the House. If a member will not obey the speaker or is disorderly, the sergeant-at-arms arrests him or has him removed. He also looks after the furniture of the House, and has charge of the pages, or little messenger boys, who wait on the members, carrying books, taking messages and the like.

It is very interesting to watch these little fellows running about on their various duties, while a meeting of the House is going on. Another duty of the sergeant-at-arms is to walk in front of the speaker on the proper occasions, carrying the mace, the symbol of the House's authority.

3. The Speech from the Throne.

Parliament must meet at least once a year. The governor-general who, as always, follows in this matter the advice of the leader of the government, sets the day for parliament to assemble. When the day comes, he himself or some person representing him, generally the Chief Justice of Canada, goes in great state to the parliament buildings, accompanied by a bodyguard of soldiers. He takes his seat on a throne in the chamber where the Senate meets, and then sends a message to the members of the House of Commons to leave their own chamber and come to the Senate.

When they arrive, he reads a short address in English and French which mentions what business the government is going to ask parliament

to do during the session. This is called the "speech from the throne." It is not written by the governor-general, as one might suppose, but by the leader of the government. When this brief ceremony is over, the governor-general goes away, and the members of the House of Commons return to their own chamber. In due time the address is discussed and a reply to it is prepared.

All these doings seem rather strange and formal to us nowadays, but they meant a great deal long ago in England. In those times the speech was a real one from the king himself, and often parliament was very unwilling to do what he desired. So the reply was then a very real thing too, and was drawn up by members sometimes at the risk of their lives. But all this is long since changed, though the old forms are still kept up.

4. Good Manners in Parliament.

While speaking in the House of Commons, a member must always address his remarks to the speaker and not to the other members. He is not allowed to call any member by his name, but

must describe him as "the honourable member for North York," or "the honourable member for Calgary," or whatever the member's constituency may be. This is done so that debates in the House may be as dignified as possible, and that members may be less tempted to say evil things of one another.

It is the duty of the speaker to check the use of all improper terms in debate. For example, no member, no matter who he may be or how much he thinks himself to be in the right, is allowed to call another member a "scoundrel." In moments of excitement members sometimes so far forget themselves as to use such violent language, but the speaker of the House always requires that an apology be made.

5. Debate.

As in any public meeting, a question is brought before the House in the form of a motion made by one member and seconded by another, except that two days before, notice must be given that such a motion will be made. In the debate on a motion each member is

allowed to speak only once. The mover is, however, permitted to reply.

But when a freer and fuller discussion is desired so that all points may be brought out, the House goes into "committee." This is always done in the case of bills, since it is advisable to have all details studied closely as a means of preventing mistakes. When the House goes into committee, the speaker leaves the chair, and the deputy speaker or a chairman presides in his place. The House may then be said to be in its "working clothes."

6. A Division.

When the debate is over, and it is uncertain whether the majority of the House is for or against the motion, a "division" is demanded. All the absent members are called in, for it is the bad habit of some of the members to remain out of the House a good deal of the time and, when summoned, to rush in to vote without having heard very much of the debate.

When all are seated, the speaker asks those who are in favour of the motion to stand. The clerks then take down the name of each member

who is standing. Next those who are against the motion are requested to rise, and their names are taken down in the same way. When the names are all counted, the speaker states that the motion has been "lost" or "carried," as the case may be. The speaker himself never takes part in the voting, unless the votes for and against a motion are exactly equal. In that case he gives his vote and decides the question.

7. The Senate and the Commons.

When a bill has passed the House of Commons, it is sent on to the Senate, which considers it in the same way as the Commons have already done. If it passes the Senate, it then goes to the governor-general to be assented to in the name of the king. Sometimes, however, the Senate makes changes in a bill, and if the two Houses cannot agree about these, the bill is dropped. But if the Houses reach an agreement, the bill is sent on to the governor-general as before.

8. Committees.

Besides the "Committee of the Whole House," which has already been mentioned, there are smaller committees, or groups of

members, chosen to consider particular bills or other matters and to report their opinion about them to the House. Each committee has its chairman, and it does its work in the same way as the committee of the whole house. If a bill does not pass the committee which has been chosen to study and discuss it, there is little probability that it will pass the House, at least during the existing session of parliament. In such a case you will probably read in the newspapers that it has been "killed in committee."

9. Supremacy of the House of Commons.

The House of Commons holds the purse of the nation, and this is the true reason why the government must have its support or resign. Unless the House is willing, no tax can be collected by the Dominion government, and no money paid out for any purpose beyond a few matters expressly mentioned in the constitution. It is evident that the work of government could not long go on, if there were no money to pay those employed in the public service, such as the clerks in the parliament buildings

and the Dominion officials throughout the country.

A bill that provides for the paying of money or the levying of a tax, must first be passed in the House of Commons. Then it is sent to the Senate, which cannot make any change in it, but must either pass it as it stands, or else reject it altogether. Further, even in the House of Commons, no private member can propose such a bill, but only a member of the government. For the government knows, or should know, how much money it needs and can ask for the proper amount, while a private member could hardly have such accurate knowledge. Besides, if the government did not have this matter entirely in its own hands, it could not fairly be blamed, when mistakes were made in levying too high a tax on the people or in paying out money improperly.

It will be seen from what has been said that the House of Commons is practically supreme. If it does not approve of what the government is doing, it can stop everything by simply shutting up the purse of the nation. But

nowadays the House has never to resort to such an extreme measure. All it has to do is to show by a vote that it no longer has "confidence" in the government, and the latter at once resigns.

10. Senators.

We shall now study how the members of parliament are chosen. A senator is appointed by the "governor-general-in-council," that is, by the government. He remains a member of the Senate so long as he lives, unless he resigns, stays away from parliament for two sessions together, leaves Canada and becomes a citizen of a foreign country, fails in business, commits a crime, or goes to reside in a province other than the one for which he has been appointed.

Before he can be chosen, he must be at least thirty years of age, be a British subject, be worth at least $4,000, and live in the province for which he is to be appointed. A Quebec senator must also live in the particular division of the province for which he is selected, or own property there. The number of Senators is :

For Ontario	24
" Quebec	24
" Nova Scotia	10
" New Brunswick	10
" Prince Edward Island	4
" Manitoba	4
" Saskatchewan	4
" Alberta	4
" British Columbia	3
	87

11. Members of the House of Commons.

Members of the House of Commons are elected by the people of Canada. But not everybody has a vote. The laws about the matter differ in the different provinces, but, as a rule, all men of the full age of twenty-one years, who are British subjects and are not criminals or insane, have the right to vote. In one or two of the provinces it is necessary also to own a small amount of property, or to pay rent to a certain amount, or to fulfil some other conditions before being allowed to vote. Indians do not usually have the right to vote. In none of the provinces are women permitted to vote in parliamentary elections.

Before a person can be elected to the House of Commons, he must be a British subject, but need not own property or live in the province or district for which he seeks to be elected. If a man who has committed a crime is elected, the House of Commons will not allow him to take his seat, and the district for which he is elected may just as well be without a representative.

12. The Number of Members in the Commons.

The number of members elected to the House of Commons in the elections of 1908 was:

For Ontario	86
" Quebec	65
" New Brunswick	13
" Nova Scotia	18
" Prince Edward Island	4
" Manitoba	10
" Saskatchewan	10
" Alberta	7
" British Columbia	7
" Yukon Territory	1
	221

The question may be asked, how is it that there were just 221 members in the House of Commons in the year 1908? We shall try to find the answer. The number of members depends on the population of the Province of Quebec. This province must, according to the constitution, always have 65 members. Then, when Quebec is given 65 members for a certain population, the other provinces are given the number that is proper for their population. If the population of another province is greater than that of Quebec, that province will have more members than Quebec. Consequently, the Province of Ontario has always had more members than Quebec. But if the population of any province is less than that of Quebec, it will have fewer members. The Province of Manitoba, for example, has always had fewer members than Quebec. So to find the number of members a province may have, is only a question in arithmetic which can be easily solved.

Now, if we take the population of Quebec and that of Ontario as a little smaller than they really are, we shall be able to have

easier numbers with which to deal. We shall, therefore, suppose that the population of Quebec is 1,625,000. The province must have 65 members, and, dividing 1,625,000 by 65, we find that it will have one member for every 25,000 people. Further, if we take the population of Ontario as 2,150,000, all we have to do in order to find the number of members to which it is entitled, is to divide this number by 25,000. The result is 86.

In the same way the number of members for each of the other provinces can be found, if we know the population. 25,000 is called in this case the "unit of representation," for it is the number of people who have a right to one member of parliament to represent them. In order to avoid fractions, we have taken an easy example, but when fractions occur, those that are less than one-half are not counted, and those over one-half are reckoned as equal to 1.

The following are additional examples to be solved: 1. The population of Quebec in 1901 was really 1,648,898 and that of Ontario 2,182,947 instead of the easier numbers we

chose. Find the unit of representation and the number of members for Ontario.

2. If the population of Quebec grows to 1,826,481 and that of British Columbia to 323,400, what will be the unit of representation, and the number of members which British Columbia will have?

13. Census.

The census is taken, that is, the population of Canada is counted, every ten years in those years which end in 1, as 1891, 1901, 1911. After the taking of the census, parliament passes a law to give to each province its proper number of members, and this number cannot be changed till after the next census. Some of the provinces may be assigned fewer members as the result of a new census, because the population of Quebec is growing fast and so the unit of representation is increasing. Thus Prince Edward Island came into the Dominion with 6 members, and now has only 4. But the western provinces always gain members when a change is made, because their population is increasing very rapidly.

In 1908 the number of members was reckoned according to the census of 1901. Saskatchewan and Alberta, however, had gained members by a census taken in 1906 in accordance with the acts of parliament by which they were formed into provinces. Yukon Territory had been given 1 member by a special act of parliament.

14. Constituencies.

Having learned how the number of members for each province is determined, we have yet to consider how the provinces are divided into districts for the election of these members. Such divisions for electoral purposes are commonly called "constituencies." Each constituency ordinarily elects one member. But sometimes, as in the case of a city like Ottawa, which is from its size entitled to have two members, no division is made, and the one large constituency is asked to elect two members.

To divide a province into the proper number of constituencies with a fairly equal population, is not an easy matter. In whatever manner it may be done, there is nearly always a great deal of complaint that the government has acted

unfairly. This subject will be taken up more fully under Topic VI.

NOTES.—A "bill," before it can pass the House, must be read three times. At the second reading debate upon it takes place.

The "Territories." Those parts of the Dominion that are not included in any of the provinces are called "territories." So long as a territory has a small population, it is governed directly by the Dominion. But as it becomes settled, it is given more and more power in local matters, until at last it is formed into a province. There are at present two territorial divisions in the Dominion: (1) Yukon Territory, electing its own governing body, the "territorial council," and (2) the Northwest Territories, having as yet no local government. Territories may be given representation in Parliament, but not necessarily on a strict basis of population.

QUESTIONS.

1. How is the speaker of the House of Commons chosen? Mention some of his duties.

2. What is the "speech from the throne"?

3. How is a question brought up for discussion in the House of Commons? How is a "division" taken?

4. What are the stages in the passing of a bill?

5. Tell why the House of Commons is supreme.

6. What are the qualifications necessary for a senator? For a member of the House of Commons?

7. In what way is the number of members in the House of Commons determined? What are "constituencies"?

8. Write a composition on the thought contained in the following lines, taking them as applicable to Canada:

LIBERTY.

On foreign mountains may the Sun refine
The grape's soft juice, and mellow it to wine,
With citron groves adorn a distant soil,
And the fat olive swell with floods of oil:
We envy not the warmer clime, that lies
In ten degrees of more indulgent skies,
Nor at the coarseness of our heaven repine,
Though o'er our heads the frozen Pleiads shine:
'Tis liberty that crowns Britannia's isle
And makes her barren rocks and her bleak mountains smile.

—*Addison.*

TOPIC V.

THE PREMIER AND THE CABINET.

1. Introduction.

Mention has been made many times already of the "government" and the "leader of the government." We shall now try to show what is meant by these terms. The word "government" is here used in a special sense, and denotes the body of men who really rule the nation, for, as we already know, the king or his representative, the governor-general, has no actual power. This body is also called the

"cabinet." Further, it is known as the "executive" or the "administration," because it executes or carries out the laws and conducts the business of the nation, while the duty of parliament is chiefly to legislate or make the laws.

At the head of the cabinet stands the person whom we have thus far called the leader of the government, but who is more usually known as the "prime minister," or "premier." The first form of the name, prime minister, is the one always employed in Great Britain, but not often used in Canada except in speaking of British affairs. The second form, premier, is the French word for "first," with the word "minister" omitted, and so means exactly the same as "prime minister," or "first minister." We almost invariably employ the form "premier" in speaking of Canadian affairs.

But why is the word "minister" used? "Minister" means a "servant." Formerly the prime minister was the servant of the king, and carried out his commands. Now he is really the servant of the nation, for it is

ultimately through its will that he becomes the head of the executive, or cabinet. The other members of the cabinet are likewise called "ministers."

2. Appointment of a Premier.

When a new premier is to be appointed, the governor-general sends for the person whom he thinks the majority of the House of Commons will support, and asks him if he will be his adviser and form a cabinet. If the person chosen feels that he can secure the support of the House of Commons, he sets about the selection of a certain number of men who may be willing to become his fellow ministers.

This is an easy matter, if it is pretty certain that the House of Commons will support the new premier. Otherwise it may be very difficult or impossible. In the latter event the new premier must go back to the governor-general and say that he cannot form a cabinet. He then usually gives the name of a person who he thinks will be able to get proper support in the House. The governor-general will at once send for this person, and ask him to be premier and form

his cabinet. When the latter has his cabinet chosen, he reports the names of the members to the governor-general for approval.

3. Members of the Cabinet in Parliament.

The premier, when he is first chosen, need not be a member of parliament, though he almost always is, but he must become a member as soon as possible. He usually prefers to belong to the House of Commons; but though he would be permitted to be a member of the Senate instead of the Commons, such an arrangement would not work well, for in that case he would not be able to take a direct part in what was being done in the House whose support is so necessary to him. The other ministers are chosen, sometimes from among men already in parliament, but nearly as often from among those outside. All ministers must, however, like the premier, become members of either the House of Commons or the Senate. But usually only a few of the ministers are members of the Senate.

It is important to note that, even if a minister is a member of the House of Commons before his appointment, he must be

re-elected to the House as a minister and member of the cabinet. The reason is that cabinet ministers get a special salary from the nation for their work, and no member of parliament is allowed to accept any salary from the nation beyond the payment he receives as an ordinary member, unless the people of his constituency express their willingness by re-electing him. The new minister is usually re-elected, because it is considered a great honour and advantage to a constituency to have as its representative a member of the cabinet.

4. Supreme Power of the Premier.

It will be seen from what has been said before, that so long as the House of Commons gives its support, the premier is the most powerful man in the nation. The other members of the cabinet are really appointed by him, and, moreover, if he resigns, they too must resign. The governor-general must, so far as Canadian affairs go, absolutely follow his advice.

The only real check on the premier's power is the House of Commons. But the members of the House are not always free to do as they like

and vote against the premier at any time they may so wish. Nearly all the members of the House belong to one of two political parties. Of one of the parties the premier is the leader, and he is almost sure of being supported by the members of his party on all necessary occasions. How this comes about will be explained under Topic VI. Therefore, with the steady support of his party behind him, the premier can carry on the work of government very much in the way he thinks fit, and is thus the nation's real ruler.

5. Unity in the Cabinet.

But on all important matters the premier consults with his fellow ministers. Regular meetings of the cabinet are held, and after discussion the members come to an agreement on each question. If, however, a member feels that he cannot accept the decision of the premier and the rest of the cabinet on a matter which is regarded as important, he is under obligation to resign. For it was long ago decided that our government cannot proceed in a satisfactory way, unless the ministers are all of the same opinion on essential points. Everything that is

said in the discussions at a meeting of the cabinet, is kept absolutely secret.

6. Order-in-Council.

When the cabinet has reached an agreement about some matter of business, as, for example, the appointment of an official, the acceptance of a tender from a contractor for some public building, or any one of the many other matters that come up in the work of government, the decision is written down in due form and submitted to the governor-general to be signed by him. It is then called an order-in-council and goes into effect.

NOTES.—"Governor-General-in-Council." This term is used in the case of all official acts of the cabinet. It denotes that the decision of the premier and his ministers has been communicated to the governor-general, and has been accepted by him.

"Privy Council." This historic body formerly gave advice to the king, when he asked for its opinion on any matter of state. It is still retained, but at the present day has no duties whatever. Each cabinet minister must, however, become a member of it by taking a prescribed oath. Though he may resign from the cabinet, he always remains a member of this ancient and shadowy council. Our privy council is called "the King's Privy Council for Canada," and must be distinguished from the British Privy Council.

The word "crown" is often used instead of the name of the king, and practically means the nation, as, for example, in the term "minister of the crown."

Questions.

1. What position does the premier occupy in the government of the country?

2. How is the premier chosen?

3. Why is it advisable that the premier should be a member of the House of Commons?

4. How is it that the premier is supreme in the cabinet and the House of Commons?

5. What is an "order-in-council"?

6. What is the meaning of "govenor-general-in-council" and "King's Privy Council for Canada"?

7. Write an account of a real or imaginary person who rose to the position of prime minister, as described in the following poem:

Dost thou look back on what hath been,
As some divinely gifted man,
Whose life in low estate began
And on a simple village green;

Who breaks his birth's invidious bar,
And grasps the skirts of happy chance,
And breasts the blows of circumstance,
And grapples with his evil star;

Who makes by force his merit known,
And lives to clutch the golden keys,
To mould a mighty state's decrees,
And shape the whisper of the throne;

And moving up from high to higher,
Becomes on Fortune's crowning slope
The pillar of a people's hope,
The centre of a world's desire;

Yet feels as in a pensive dream,
When all his active powers are still,
A distant dearness in the hill,
A secret sweetness in the stream;

The limit of his narrower fate,
While yet beside its vocal springs
He played at counsellors and kings,
With one that was his earliest mate;

Who ploughs with pain his native lea
And reaps the labour of his hands,
Or in the furrow musing stands:
"Does my old friend remember me?"

—*Tennyson, In Memoriam, LXIV.*

TOPIC VI.

Political Parties.

1. Public Questions.

There arise from time to time certain public questions about which men have strong opinions. For example, many are in favour of placing heavy duties on goods manufactured abroad, so as to prevent their importation into the country, thus

giving our manufacturers an opportunity of selling more of their goods in the Canadian market. Many other people advocate low duties or no duties at all on foreign goods, so that Canadians may be able to buy what they want as cheaply as possible without regard to the interests of the manufacturer and his workmen. Such is the tariff question which has played a great part in our political history. Other questions which have arisen are, that of separate schools in Manitoba and the new provinces, that of Senate reform, that of the national ownership of railways, and that of the prohibition of the sale of intoxicating liquors.

2. Origin of the Party System.

It is natural for all who take one side of a public question to form themselves into an association for the purpose of securing the adoption of laws in harmony with their particular views. The way to make sure that certain laws will be enacted, is to bring about the election to parliament of a majority of members in favour of them. Consequently, there is very good reason why persons who agree among

themselves on an important public question, should establish the kind of association which is called a political party.

But we must observe also that it is not often that a political party is successful, if the party is formed solely because of particular views on one question, no matter how important this may be. It is very difficult so to interest the great body of the citizens in a single question that they will unite on account of it alone aside from other public matters. But, in the course of long years of political discussion, the majority of the people have become separated into two great divisions. These divisions are known as the Conservative and Liberal parties.

The leaders of each, since they are anxious to secure a majority in the House and thus gain control of the government, try by every possible means to persuade voters of the merits of their own side. If they think that a certain public question will "catch" a large number of votes, they will be very ready to take it up, even though personally they might prefer to leave the matter alone. In this way, all important

questions are as a rule brought under the consideration of the people, and, in consequence, there is on ordinary occasions no need for forming a special political party. It is only when neither of the old parties will assist in the discussion of a public matter, that a new party may come into existence. There is, however, one great disadvantage in our having these permanent political divisions. Many persons become so much interested in the mere success of their own party, that they seem to care very little whether the public measures which it is advocating, are good or bad.

3. Political Platforms.

Some time before the elections a party usually draws up what is called its "platform," that is, a statement of what its views are in regard to the "issues," or important questions before the people. This statement represents the "policy" of the party. Great care is taken to show that this policy is in agreement with the "principles," or general ideas of government which the party is supposed always to follow and to hold sacred. We hear a great deal about these principles

during the "campaign," or period of public discussion that comes just before the elections.

A party usually has a "campaign cry," which is supposed to give the main issue in the most attractive way. These campaign cries sound very strange after all the excitement is over. Some of those which have been used are, "The old flag, the old policy and the old leader," "It is time for a change," "Five years more of the full dinner pail."

4. Government and Opposition.

The political party which has the majority in the House of Commons and of which the premier is the leader, is called the government party, and the other which opposes the government, is known as the "opposition." The head of the latter party has no special name, and is called simply the "leader of the opposition."

5. Nominating Conventions.

One of the first duties of a political party before an election is to endeavour to have suitable men "nominated" in every constituency, that is, to have them put forward publicly for election to the House. These men, when

selected, are called "candidates." The usual way in which a party chooses its candidate, is to ask its friends in each part of a constituency to meet and elect delegates, or representatives, to attend a general meeting, or "convention," to be held in some central place.

At the convention a number of names are proposed, and a vote is taken. After voting on all the names, the convention can generally narrow its choice down to two or three that obtain a high number of votes. The person who finally secures the highest vote, is chosen as the candidate of the party. Then the one who comes next to him in the number of votes received, generally moves that the choice of the convention "be made unanimous," and promises that he himself, just as the rest of the convention, will accept the party candidate and will work hard to secure his election to parliament.

Even though it may be well understood that the member at the time representing the constituency in parliament will again be a candidate at the elections, a convention of his party is usually called, and he is nominated or not, as the

convention thinks fit. Sometimes conventions, when summoned, decide not to put a candidate "in the field," if they see that their party would have little chance of winning.

6. The Campaign.

As soon as a candidate is chosen, he must set about preparing his "campaign." A number of the party workers help him, but he must do a great deal himself. He must try to meet as many persons as possible in the various parts of the constituency. For this purpose he goes about speaking at public meetings which are arranged for him, and is introduced by the local party men to individual voters.

He or his friends have to ask a great many directly for their votes or, as it is said, "canvass" them. It is an unfortunate thing that so many will not vote for a candidate, unless they are personally solicited. They seem to forget that voting is one of the highest duties which they have to perform as citizens, and that they should vote for the candidate they believe to be the best, whether they have ever been canvassed or not.

Sometimes also money is paid for votes. This "bribing" of electors is one of the greatest crimes that can be committed against the nation, and the person who receives such money, is quite as guilty as the person who pays it. If bribery were ever to become general, it would mean the end of liberty and good government, and thus what our ancestors toiled during a thousand years to gain would be thrown away. There may be bribery, too, in other ways than by money. For instance, some voters may be promised positions in the public service, grants from parliament, or special favours of various kinds. Such methods are all equally bad from a moral point of view and all equally injurious to the nation.

7. Doubtful and Safe Constituencies.

While the candidate is working in his own constituency, the leader and other prominent men in the party make a tour through the country. They address meetings in what are considered suitable places, especially in those constituencies which the party is afraid of losing, though it has won them at the preceding election, or which it does not now hold but

has hopes of winning. In fact, on these "doubtful" constituencies the fate of the party ordinarily depends.

On the other hand, there are some divisions that are almost sure to elect a Conservative as their member, while there are others that are quite as certain to elect a Liberal. Now it is just because of such circumstances that a government may have a great temptation to face. For, when a province is being divided into constituencies, a government, if it likes, can so make the division, that as many as possible of the new constituencies may be "safe" ones for its own party, and as many as possible "doubtful" for the opposition. For example, if a certain constituency is a doubtful one for the government, and there happens to be close by, a district that gives a good majority in its favour, all the government has to do in order to make the constituency probably a safe one, is to add this district. Or the same result may be gained by taking away a part of the constituency that gives a large opposition majority. This unfair way of dividing a province is called a "gerrymander," from the name of an American politician.

NOTES.—"Seat" is a term often used for constituency. "Elector" is another word for "voter." "The country" is a term frequently employed in politics to mean the electorate, or the whole body of voters of the nation.

QUESTIONS.

1. Mention some important public questions that have arisen from time to time in Canada.

2. How do political parties originate?

3. Explain the terms, "platform," "issue," "policy," "campaign."

4. What is the "opposition?"

5. What is a "nominating convention"?

6. Give an account of a political meeting which you have attended.

7. Who were the candidates in your constituency at the last Dominion election, and how did they conduct their campaigns?

8. Explain "canvass," "bribery," "gerrymander."

9. Learn by heart the following:

FREEDOM.

Her open eyes desire the truth.
The wisdom of a thousand years
Is in them. May perpetual youth
Keep dry their light from tears;

That her fair form may stand and shine,
Make bright our days and light our dreams,
Turning to scorn with lips divine
The falsehood of extremes!

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC VII.

How the Elections are Held.

1. Sessions of Parliament.

According to our constitution, the British North America Act, parliament must meet at least once a year. This meeting together for the purpose of making laws and transacting other public business, is called a "session" of parliament. Besides the one ordinary session in the year, a special session is sometimes held when there is need for it. The session may be long or short according to circumstances. The ordinary length is about four or five months.

Members of the Senate and the House of Commons are each paid a salary, called an "indemnity," of $2,500 for attendance during a session. If, however, a member is absent from the House a certain number of days, he loses a part of the indemnity. Moreover, if a session does not last longer than thirty days, he receives only a certain sum per day. The salary of the governor-general is $50,000 per year.

2. Prorogation.

At the close of the session parliament is "prorogued." This term means that parliament is dismissed for the time being, but is to be called to meet again at a certain date, when there will be a new session. At prorogation all bills that have not yet passed the Houses are dropped, and at the next session they must be presented again, as if they had never been before parliament.

On the occasion of prorogation the governor-general comes in state to the parliament buildings, as at the opening, and gives the royal assent to the bills that have been passed during the session. He also reads a short speech, reviewing the business of the session, and thanking the members for the work they have done.

3. Dissolution.

The longest period a parliament is allowed to last is five years; but very few ever continue so long. The ordinary duration is about four years. The government can have a parliament "dissolved," or ended, at any time, if the governor-general consents. and, of course, he

will hardly ever refuse except for the gravest reasons.

If a parliament is permitted to run its full course, there is difficulty in holding a satisfactory session near the end. The opposition can prevent legislation by simply talking away the time in committee of the whole, where any member may speak as often as he likes. This method of delaying business is known as "obstruction." When "obstructing," members only pretend to discuss the bill before them, their chief aim being to keep on talking as long as they can. Therefore, it is plain that, since parliament must come to an end by a certain day, the last session can be made nearly useless and the government be placed in an unpleasant position before the country.

Another reason why a parliament hardly ever lasts its full period, is that the government naturally likes to choose a time for "going to the country," when it feels that the chances of winning are most in its favour. If it should allow a parliament to last into the fifth year, it would have less choice of a suitable

moment for dissolution. This must be regarded as a rather unfair advantage which the government can take of the opposition. Besides these reasons, there is no doubt always a strong desire in the government party "to have it over" as soon as possible, when in any case election day must come before long.

4. Premature Dissolution.

There are, however, occasions when the length of a parliament may be much shortened. One occurs when some very important matter comes up for consideration, and the members of the government wish to know whether or not the people approve of their policy with respect to it. The governor-general is asked to dissolve parliament, and the "campaign" is fought chiefly on that one great question. If the government obtains a majority, it knows that the people wish it to carry out its policy. If it is defeated, the opposition comes into power as a new government.

Again, an occasion for dissolving parliament may arise when the government is defeated in the House of Commons on some

important question, such as a government measure. The government may ask for a dissolution in order to appeal to the country; or it may resign. If it resigns, the governor-general requests the leader of the opposition to form a new government. Should the new premier feel that he can get the support of the House, he may go on with the work of the session. But, if he is aware that he will not secure sufficient support, he asks that parliament be dissolved, and appeals to the people in the hope of obtaining a favourable majority in the new parliament.

5. Official Nomination of Candidates.

When for any reason it is decided to hold the parliamentary elections, writs, or orders, are sent out in the name of the king to special officers appointed in all the constituencies, and known as "returning officers." The writs state when the nomination of candidates is to take place. If only one candidate presents himself in a constituency, he is declared elected. Such an election is known as election by "acclamation." But if more than one candidate is

nominated, there must be a vote taken one week later throughout the constituency at various places selected for the purpose.

At this regular or official nomination those who have been already chosen by the parties as candidates, are duly nominated by their supporters. Often no other candidates come forward, and the voters are forced to choose between these two. Sometimes, however, a third party, as the Labour party or the Socialist party, may put forth a candidate. Or a person may decide to be a candidate without the support of any party. Such a candidate is usually called an Independent Conservative or an Independent Liberal, as the case may be.

6. Nomination Papers.

The official nomination of candidates takes place in this way. At the time set by law, twelve o'clock noon, on the day appointed, the returning officer goes to a public hall, and there waits for nominations till two o'clock. A nomination must be in written form, and be signed by twenty-five electors. The person nominated must give his written consent, unless

he is absent from the province at the time. The sum of two hundred dollars must also be handed in to be kept as a deposit and returned, unless the candidate fails to obtain at least one-half of the number of votes polled in favour of the person elected.

7. How the Voting is Done.

A week after nomination day the elections are held. Suitable places are chosen throughout the constituency as voting or "polling" places, and each is put under the charge of a deputy returning officer.

The vote is by ballot and is secret. A ballot is a sheet of paper having a detachable slip or counterfoil at the side, and provided with a stub by which it may be bound into a book containing twenty-five, fifty, or one hundred ballots, as is most convenient. On the front of the ballot appears the name of each candidate, with his residence and occupation. The names are in alphabetical order, numbered, and separated from one another by broad black lines. On the back, the stub and counterfoil have the same printed number, while the body of the ballot

has the returning officer's stamp, the place and date of the elections, and the name of the person who printed the ballots.

If you go to a polling place to record your vote, you notice, as you enter, besides the deputy returning officer and his assistant, known as the "poll clerk," a certain number of men, commonly called "scrutineers," who have been chosen by the political parties to watch over the interests of their candidates, and to see that persons who have no right to vote are not given a ballot. There is in the room a list of all those who have votes, and, if your name is on it, and the officials present are satisfied that you are the person you claim to be and not somebody else trying to vote under your name, you receive from the deputy returning officer a ballot, on the back of which he has put his initials. On the counter-foil also is written a number corresponding to the number placed opposite your name in the "poll book," in which a record is kept of all those who vote.

You are told to retire to some small room opening from the larger one, or to some space

screened off from it, and there you find a pencil with which you are to mark your ballot. Absolutely all you must do, is to make a cross X opposite the name of the man for whom you wish to vote. If you put any other mark on your ballot, you "spoil" it, so that it will not be counted. Then you should fold your ballot so as to show the initials of the deputy returning officer on the outside.

After that you go with it to the deputy returning officer. He looks at the number on the counterfoil and his initials, to make sure that it is the same ballot as the one which he gave you. Then he tears off and destroys the counterfoil, and puts your ballot in the ballot box that has been provided to contain all the ballots cast at this polling place. Meanwhile, the poll clerk records in the poll book the fact that you have voted.

In case the officials are not sure that you have a right to vote, they can ask that you be sworn before receiving a ballot. If you cannot swear that you are entitled to vote, you will not be given a ballot and will be asked to withdraw.

The voting lasts from 9 o'clock in the morning till 5 o'clock in the afternoon. When the poll is closed, the votes are counted as rapidly as possible, and the results are carried by eager messengers to the nearest telegraph or telephone office, so that it is known everywhere in a very short time who has been elected member for the constituency. There may, of course, be mistakes made in this first summing up, and the result is not known exactly, until the returning officer himself a few days later counts again all the votes in the constituency, and makes his official statement.

If the number of votes given for the candidates is very nearly even, there is usually held what is called a "recount" before a judge. The chief difficulty that usually presents itself, is whether certain ballots are to be counted or not. Some electors may have voted for more than the proper number of candidates, may have placed some marks beside the cross on their ballot, or may have made some other mistake. The judge decides on all these points, and his decision settles the question of the election,

unless there has been bribery or other wrong doing. In the latter event, the case comes up for trial in a court of law.

The elections are held throughout the Dominion on the same day, except in some large constituencies where the population is widely scattered and voters may have to go a long way to vote. Such constituencies are Chicoutimi and Saguenay, and Gaspé, in the Province of Quebec, and Comox-Atlin, Kootenay, and Yale-Cariboo, in the Province of British Columbia, and Yukon.

8. By-Elections.

Elections for the choosing of a new parliament are called general elections. But often vacancies occur in the House of Commons at other times, when a member resigns or dies, or when a seat is declared vacant by a court of law for bribery or some other reason. In the case of a vacancy for whatever cause, the speaker of the House gives his "warrant," or permission, for holding a special election in the constituency concerned. Such an election is ordinarily called a "by-election." It is conducted in exactly the same

way as are the general elections, except in so far as it has to do with one constituency only and not with the entire country. If there are several vacancies at one time, the necessary by-elections are held as far as possible on the same day.

NOTES.—The "Closure." This is a means adopted in the British parliament to prevent "obstruction." A time-table is drawn up beforehand, showing how long discussion will be allowed in committee of the whole on each clause or division of a bill. When the time is up, all debate must cease, and the clause is straigthway voted on, and adopted or rejected. Then at once discussion on the next clause begins, and continues for the period allotted for the purpose. Thus it becomes manifestly impossible for members to "talk out" a bill.

The "Ballot." The abbreviations on the back are R.O. (Returning Officer), D.R.O. (Deputy Returning Officer), P.B. (Poll Book).

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of "prorogue" and "dissolve" as applied to parliament?

2. What causes may bring about the dissolution of parliament?

3. Tell how candidates are officially nominated for election.

4. Describe how an elector casts his vote.

5. What are the duties of a returning officer, a deputy returning officer, and a poll clerk?

6. Where was the polling place in your neighbourhood at the last Dominion election? In favour of what

political party did your municipality or polling division give a majority ?

7. What political party is at present in power in the Dominion, and what is its majority in the House of Commons ?

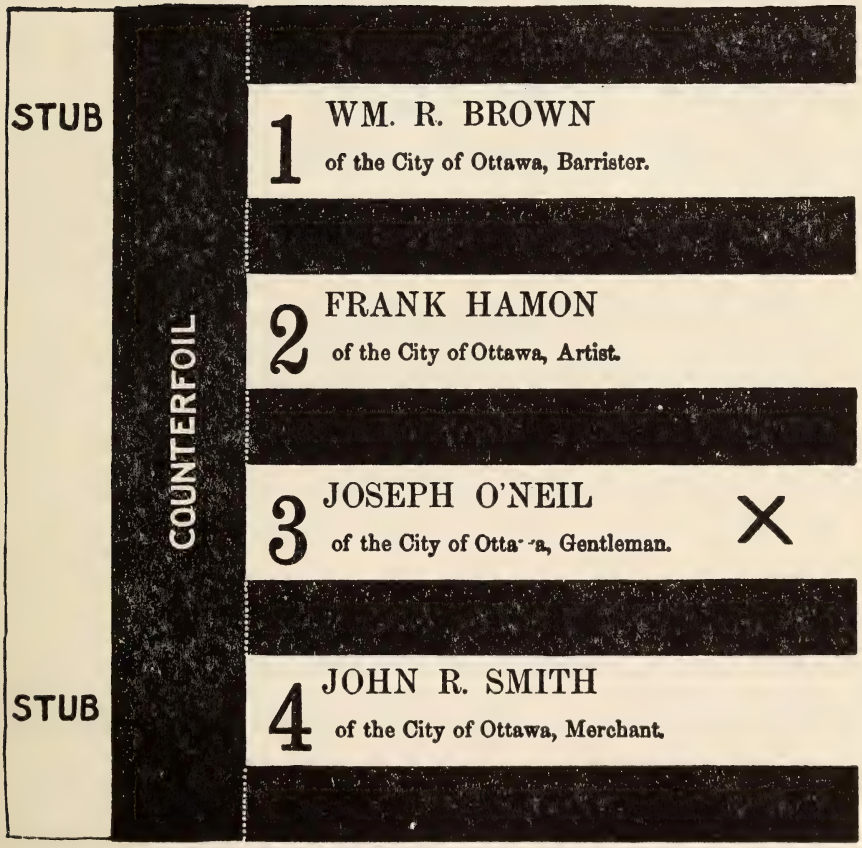
8. The following passage contains advice for leaders of political parties who desire the welfare of their country :

> Nor toil for title, place or touch
> Of pension, neither count on praise :
> It grows to guerdon after-days :
> Nor deal in watchwords overmuch :
>
> Not clinging to some ancient saw ;
> Not mastered by some modern term ;
> Not swift nor slow to change, but firm :
> And in its season bring the law.
>
> —*Tennyson.*

Read it over and try to understand it.

Form of Ballot Paper.

Front.



Form of Ballot Paper.

(Reduced to about 2/3 original size).

Back.

No. 325

(Line of Perforations here.)

No. 325

P. B. No.....

(Line of Perforations here.)

D.-R.-O.

INITIALS.

R. C. STAMP

Electoral District of Carleton,
November 24, 1900.

James Brown, Printer,
Ottawa.

TOPIC VIII.

The Departments of Government.

1. Ministers and their Deputies.

Thus far we have been studying chiefly how the laws are made, and what share the executive, or cabinet, has in legislation. We shall now learn how the cabinet carries on the general business of the nation. All the immense amount of work that has to be done, is divided among a certain number of departments. At the head of each department is a cabinet minister. He is responsible for the kind of work that is done in his department, and is expected to answer questions about it when they are asked in parliament.

Under him is a deputy minister, who assists him, and has more direct charge of the details of the department and of the clerks and others employed. Though the cabinet minister must change, if the government is defeated and compelled to resign, the deputy minister is a permanent official. If it were otherwise, the public business might be very badly done,

when new men took hold of a department without knowledge of its special work. Cabinet ministers may come and go, but there is still a person left in charge who knows all about the business of his department.

2. List of Cabinet Ministers.

At present the cabinet ministers and their departments are as follows :

The President of the Council, who is the premier and presides at meetings of the cabinet.

The Minister of Trade and Commerce, the duties of whose department will be readily understood from the name.

The Minister of Justice, who has charge of legal matters. He sees that the laws are enforced, decides whether a man who has committed a crime shall be pardoned or not, and has the oversight of the penitentiaries of the Dominion.

The Minister of Marine and Fisheries, who has to deal with matters connected with navigation and fishing. For example, he looks after the harbours, the lighthouses, the inspection

of ships. He is also head of the Department of the Naval Service having control of matters that concern the navy and the hydrographic service.

The Minister of Militia and Defence, whose duties are with regard to our armies, fortresses, schools of instruction and military college.

The Postmaster General, the minister in charge of all the post offices and the mails.

The Minister of Labour, whose duties concern the welfare of the working men. Thus he aids in the settlement of "strikes" in accordance with an act of parliament which provides for arbitration under certain conditions. The department of labour publishes a paper called the "Labour Gazette."

The Minister of Agriculture, who has charge not only of agricultural affairs, but of many things that have little to do with farming. He deals with matters which concern the health of the people, and the quarantining of ships or their passengers, if any dangerous disease is found on board. He sees that the census is properly taken every ten years, and he is also the

minister who has to do with the granting of patents, the copyrighting of books, and the registering of trade marks.

The Minister of Public Works, who attends to the erection and repairing of all public buildings and other works (except railways and canals).

The Minister of Finance, who is the most important minister with the exception of the premier. He lays before parliament and the nation the policy of the government in regard to taxation. As the Dominion collects its taxes indirectly by means of customs and excise duties, and not directly, as our cities and towns must do, this policy comes to mean a very great deal in the buying and selling of manufactured goods. The matter will be more fully explained under Topic IX.

The Minister of Railways and Canals, who deals with affairs connected with the railways and canals of the country. The nation owns all the canals. Of the railways it possesses the Intercolonial and the Prince Edward Island Railway in the Maritime Provinces. It also

owns the National Transcontinental Railway, but has leased it to the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Co. There is a "board of railway commissioners" appointed by the government to act as judges for the settlement of disputes with respect to railway rates, telegraph and telephone charges, and other matters connected with public services of this kind. The board has six members.

The Minister of the Interior, who has to do with the government of the Northwest Territories, the Indians, and the land which the Dominion owns in the prairie provinces.

The Minister of Customs, who has charge of the collection of the customs duties.

The Minister of Inland Revenue, who deals with the collection of the excise duties, and the inspection of weights and measures. He is also head of the Department of Mines and the Geological Survey.

The Secretary of State, who is the minister that acts as the official correspondent in matters in which the whole government is concerned. For instance, he carries on the correspondence

between the Dominion and the provinces. Besides such duties, he issues passports to Canadians who intend going abroad, puts the great seal of the Dominion on documents which require it, looks after the government printing, and buys and distributes the stationery needed in all the departments. He is also in charge of the Department of External Affairs, which attends to correspondence with the rest of the Empire and with foreign nations.

In addition to the cabinet ministers, there is a member of the government who is not a member of the cabinet. He is the Solicitor-General, whose duty it is to give legal advice to the government, and to act as counsel when the Dominion has a case in court.

3. Civil Service.

The great army of clerks and other officials, many of them men of highly trained skill, who are required in the various departments of the government, is called by the general name of the "civil service." The name was originally given to distinguish this class from the persons who are engaged in the military or the naval service

of the country. Those who wish to enter the civil service must pass an examination. The governor-general-in-council makes the appointments to the service.

Formerly appointments and promotions were often the direct result of the "influence" of political friends. But it is now intended to change all this, and to have persons selected because of their ability and fitness. For this purpose the civil service has been placed under the control of a "civil service commission," which is to act independently of politics. The commission consists of two members.

Questions.

1. What are the duties of a deputy minister?
2. How many cabinet ministers are there?
3. Who is the Premier? Who is the Minister of Finance?
4. What is the Board of Railway Commissioners?
5. What are the duties of the Minister of Justice and the Secretary of State?
6. Describe the work of the Department of Labour?
7. What is the "civil service"?
8. Commit to memory:

Should banded unions persecute
  Opinion and induce a time
  When single thought is civil crime,
And individual freedom mute;

Though Power should make from land to land
  The name of Britain trebly great—
  Tho' every channel of the state
Should fill and choke with golden sand—

Yet waft me from the harbour-mouth,
  Wild wind! I seek a warmer sky,
  And I will see before I die
The palms and temples of the South.

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC IX.

Taxation.

1. The National Debt.

In order that government may go on, a great deal of money must, of course, be spent. Our nation, like nearly all others, is in debt to a large amount. Debt for a nation is not quite so troublesome a thing as debt for an ordinary person. Nations are expected to live forever or, at least, for a very long time. Consequently, when great public works are to be constructed,

it does not seem necessary or proper that, while these are to benefit future generations, the people of the present time should pay in full for them. Therefore, money is borrowed, and interest is paid on it. Moreover, the nation can borrow money at a low rate of interest, and thus the burden of the debt is, after all, not so great.

Still it is unwise even for a nation to assume a very heavy debt. For, in that case, those who lend money become afraid of not receiving the interest promptly or even of losing some of the principal, since a nation, like an individual, sometimes cannot or will not pay its debts. As a result, lenders may charge a high rate of interest or may not lend at all, even when the nation is in great need. Canada has never gone too deeply into debt, and so can borrow money at a low rate of interest, or, as people say, "the credit of the country is good." We have gone into debt chiefly to provide for the construction of public buildings, railways and canals, and to assume the indebtedness of the provinces at the time when they entered confederation.

2. Annual Expenditures.

Each year the interest on the public debt has to be paid. Next come the expenses of parliament and the salary of the governor-general. The Dominion must also pay the salaries of the lieutenant-governors of the provinces. All the expenses of the departments and the civil service have to be met. The salaries of the judges, the cost of building and managing public works of all kinds, of maintaining the mounted police in the Northwest Territories and of looking after the Indians, and countless other expenses, must all be paid.

3. Sources of Revenue.

Now, the question is how is all this money to be obtained? The answer is that it is paid in the form of taxes by the people. But the Dominion does not levy taxes on the people directly as a municipality does. It secures its revenue indirectly by means of customs and excise duties.

4. Customs Duties.

When anything is brought into the country, such as manufactured articles, like cotton or woollen goods, or natural products, like grain or

sugar, it may have a tax placed upon it of so much per cent. according to value, or so many cents per bushel or pound according to the quantity. Such taxes bear the name of customs duties. As goods usually are imported in large quantities by merchants, the duties are paid by them in the first place. But when they are bought by purchasers in the shops and elsewhere, they must be sold at a higher price in order to make up the amount of the duties that have been charged. Consequently, every person in the country pays more or less taxes to the Dominion government, although he may never realize that he is doing so.

Herein lies the objection to such a method of taxation, since one cannot readily discover how much he is actually paying. In fact, it would often seem as if a large part of the nation does not really know that government costs anything, or imagines that the money comes in some miraculous way and not out of the people's own pockets. As a result, public expenditures are not closely enough watched, and administrations are, in consequence, tempted to be wasteful. The nation also falls into the habit of expecting

parliament to authorize unprofitable undertakings, such, for example, as the construction of public works in places where they are not needed.

5. Protective Tariff.

The rate of duties placed upon imported goods, or the "tariff," as it is commonly called, may lend itself to another purpose besides the raising of revenue for the expenses of government. This we shall now explain. If a country has few manufactures, it must ordinarily have few people living in the cities, because there will be little work for them to do. Therefore, the farmers will find only a small population to buy their grain and other products, or, as it is said, the "home market" will be small. Hence it will be necessary to send a large amount of produce abroad to other countries in order to be able to dispose of it.

Now it is always felt that it would be well to have a large market at home. For, in that case, the manufacturer could sell his goods to the farmer, and the farmer sell his produce to the manufacturer and his workmen, and everybody find it a profitable arrangement.

But how can manufactures be built up, when costly buildings must first be erected and workmen trained, while foreign manufacturers who have been years in business are prepared to sell their goods at such low prices as to defy competition?

The easiest way out of the difficulty seems to be to levy high customs duties on foreign goods. As a result, these cannot any longer be sold cheaply in the country. Hence the home manufacturers will be able to sell their product at a remunerative price, and thus find themselves in a position to build and equip suitable factories and procure skilled workmen. Afterwards when they have had such "protection" against foreign goods, until their business has become prosperous, they will be able to meet all competition and need not complain, if the high duties are removed. This would seem to be an excellent arrangement, for, although the farmers and other purchasers will for a time have to pay more for what they buy, they will be assisting in the creation of a large home market for themselves.

The main difficulty is, that it is not easy for any one to say just how long the high duties

should be maintained. The manufacturers will naturally desire "protection," as long as it can be given, for, if it is removed, they will be compelled to lower the price of their goods. Yet those opposed to protection, called "free traders," would soon persuade the people to abolish the high duties, if foreign nations did not also have their own protective tariffs against us in order to keep out our goods. Thus there exists what is really a sort of war between nations, in which each tries to get the better of the other.

As a consequence, Canada seems to be forced in self-defence to keep up a protective tariff. In fact, there is only one great "free trade" country in the world, namely, Great Britain. The United States has a very high tariff. On the other hand, the Canadian tariff is rather a moderate one. Moreover, we have adopted, in favour of Great Britain and a number of the colonies, what is known as the "British preferential tariff," which permits their manufactures to enter our country at a lower rate than we grant to those of outside nations.

6. Excise Duties.

Besides the customs duties levied on goods brought into the country, there are "excise duties," which are collected on liquors and tobacco manufactured in Canada. This tax is a heavy one and yields a large revenue to the government.

7. Consolidated Fund.

All sums of money that are contributed for the purposes of government, whether they come from taxes or from some other source, are placed together to form what is known as the "consolidated fund." Then again, all the expenses of government are paid out of the same general fund. In this way it is very easy to discover to what the revenue and the expenditure have amounted during each year. An official, called the "auditor general," has the duty of investigating all payments, so as to make sure that no money has been expended for any purpose beyond what was authorized by parliament.

8. The Budget.

One of the great events of the annual session of parliament is the speech of the Minister of Finance in which he presents the "budget."

This means the statement of the probable expenses of government for the following year and of the amount and kind of taxation that will be necessary to meet these expenses. Therefore, it is in this speech that is explained what will be the rate of duties on imports, and whether the tariff will be "protective" in the case of certain kinds of goods, or whether it will be one "for revenue only." The budget speech is, or should be, a matter of great interest to farmers, manufacturers, merchants, and, in fact, to all classes of people, because customs duties affect everybody in the country in some way or other.

Questions.

1. Why should a nation not go deeply into debt?
2. How does the Dominion obtain its revenue?
3. Mention some of the annual items of expenditure.
4. What are "customs duties"?
5. What is a "protective tariff"?
6. What is the "budget"?

TOPIC X.

Money and the Banks.

1. Money and Barter.

We all know something about "money." When we buy anything, we pay money. When we sell anything, we receive money. Things that are sold and work that is done, are said to cost a certain sum in money. If there were no such thing as money, we should be forced to use what is called "barter." For example, if we wanted to buy a pair of boots, we should have to work a certain number of days for the man who sold them, or give him something that we had, such as wheat, flour or meat. Long ago before there was money, this is what was actually done. But nowadays all kinds of work to be performed and all articles to be sold, are said to cost a certain amount in dollars and cents. One can easily see that this is a much more convenient way of doing business than if we had to employ barter.

2. Currency.

The form of our money (or our "currency") is very familiar to us. It consists of copper, silver, gold and paper. The copper coin is the one cent

piece. The silver coins are the pieces worth 5, 10, 25, and 50 cents. The gold coins are of the value of $5 and $10. The paper money consists of "notes" (usually called "bills"), representing the value of $1, $2, $5, $50, $100, $500 and $1,000. These coins and notes are issued by the Dominion, and would be worth little or, in the case of the paper money, nothing at all, if the government were not always willing, when asked, to pay the given value in gold.

But just because it is well known that the government will pay in gold, there is considered to be little need of asking for payment. The promise to pay is regarded as of the same value as the gold itself. But, if at any time many persons should come to believe that the government either would not, or could not, pay in gold, our currency would at once lose much of its value. Therefore, the government takes care to issue currency only to such an amount that doubt can never arise as to its being able to "redeem" all in case of necessity.

3. Coinage.

An establishment where gold, silver and copper coins are made is called a "mint." Our

mint is situated in Ottawa. It is a branch of the royal mint in Great Britain.

The notes or bills are printed on specially prepared paper, and are signed by officers of the Dominion. Great care must be taken that no person shall be allowed to imitate, or "counterfeit," these notes, since, in that case, either the government or the persons who happened to accept the "counterfeits," would lose the amount of money supposed to be represented by them.

4. The Chartered Banks.

The regular banks of the country, called "chartered banks," perform many important services. Their business is carried on under the terms of a "banking act" which renders them, as far as can be done by legislation, a safe place in which to deposit money. Most of the provisions of the act are too difficult to explain here. But in a general way it may be said that the shareholders (that is, those who own and control the bank) are liable to lose, in case the bank becomes insolvent, not only the money that they have invested, but as much again, should it all be required to pay off the indebtedness. Thus the "double liability" of

the shareholders makes it almost impossible for the depositors to lose much in the event of the failure of a chartered bank.

5. Services Performed by the Banks.

The chief services performed by the banks may be described as follows:—

1. They issue currency called "banknotes" or "bankbills." None of these notes are below $5 in value. In most banks they are of such denominations as $5, $10, $20, $50, $100. If a bank fails, its notes do not lose value, for the banking act prescribes a way by which they are sure to be redeemed in full without the slightest loss or inconvenience to the public.

2. They form a safe place for the deposit of money. The double liability of the shareholders makes it possible to secure funds enough in even the most disastrous failures to pay back nearly in full the amount of the money deposited.

3. They furnish money at a reasonable rate of interest to merchants and others for the carrying on of those kinds of business in which large amounts must be paid out for purchases,

before much can be returned through the sale of the goods. An important example is to be found in the case of the money required to pay farmers for their wheat. Most of the wheat must be shipped to Great Britain; hence there must elapse considerable time before it is actually paid for by the purchasers across the ocean. With the aid of the banks, it becomes possible to make cash payments to the farmers from whom the grain is bought, and to the railway companies by whom it is transported.

4. All the large banks have many branches throughout the country. Thus there is in nearly every town and village an office of a strong and trustworthy institution, where money may be deposited or borrowed according to the needs of local business.

Questions.

1. Examine a one-dollar bill, noting the place, the date, the number, the "promise to pay," and the signatures. What scenes and persons are represented on the front and back of the bill?

2. Examine a copper or silver coin, noting the design on its two sides. Find what the Latin inscription means.

3. What is the name of the nearest branch of a chartered bank? Who are the chief officials? What is the rate of interest paid on deposits?

ALBERTA EDITION.

PART II.—PROVINCIAL AFFAIRS.

TOPIC XI.

The Provincial Government.

1. Introduction.

Reference has already been made to the bringing together, in 1867, of the historic old provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Canada (Ontario and Quebec) to form the Dominion of Canada. This name, though originally applied to these four provinces, soon embraced the whole of British North America with the exception of the colony of Newfoundland. In 1870, the vast domain controlled for two centuries by the Hudson's Bay Company was, by purchase, transferred to the Dominion of Canada; and in the same year, a portion of this territory became the province of Manitoba. In 1871, British Columbia entered confederation; and in 1873, the little province of Prince Edward Island also joined the federal union. The immense area extending from Manitoba and Hudson's Bay to the Rocky Mountains and from

the international boundary to the Arctic Ocean, and generally known as the North-West Territories, was divided into Districts for convenience in the matter of government, and of these Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta and Athabaska were grouped, in 1882, under a Lieutenant-Governor and Council. As the population increased and the various institutions developed, the form of government gradually passed through various stages of development towards responsible government, which was attained in 1898. Finally, in 1905, Dominion Acts of Parliament were passed establishing the two provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. Thus the Dominion of Canada is now made up of nine provinces, besides a number of Districts whose affairs are controlled more or less directly by the Federal Government.

In studying the relationship between the Dominion and the Provinces we found that it is practically certain that provinces will differ more or less in their laws and institutions. When we begin, therefore, to study provincial matters we find it necessary to deal with the provinces individually. Thus, while the constitution with

regard to the office of lieutenant-governor is the same in all the provinces, and while in each province there is an executive council or cabinet responsible to the legislature, it is optional whether there shall be in a province one legislative assembly, or two houses, corresponding to the House of Commons and the Senate in the federal government. The latter system is in effect in Quebec and Nova Scotia, the former in all the other provinces of the Dominion. In our further study of provincial affairs we shall deal particularly with the government of the province of Alberta, and refer to that of the others only for purposes of comparison or contrast.

2. The Lieutenant-Governor.

The provincial government is conducted according to the same general principles that we have already studied in the case of the Dominion. The official who holds in the province the position similar to that which the governor-general holds in the Dominion, is known as the Lieutenant-Governor. He is appointed by the Dominion government, and his usual term of office is about five years. Stated briefly, his duties and powers in the affairs of the province correspond closely

to those already described as belonging to the governor-general in the affairs of the nation. (See page 22.)

3. The Executive Council.

The leader of the provincial government is called the "premier." He is chosen by the lieutenant-governor in exactly the same way as the premier of Canada is chosen by the governor-general. (See page 48.) Likewise there are associated with the provincial premier a number of other ministers who assist him in the work of government and form with him the "executive council," or cabinet of the province. What has been said already under Topic V. regarding the premier and cabinet of the Dominion is similarly applicable in provincial affairs. The term that corresponds to Governor-General-in-Council is Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

4. The Departments of Government.

As in the case of the government of the Dominion so in provincial affairs, matters requiring attention are divided among departments, and the head of each department must be a member of the Executive Council. The number of departments may be increased or decreased as may

be found necessary or expedient, and more than one department may be assigned to one minister. It may be desirable, too, to admit to the cabinet a member who is not in charge of a department. Such a member is styled a "minister without portfolio," and is not entitled to a minister's salary. Each minister in charge of a department is assisted by a deputy who is more intimately associated with the details of departmental administration, and directs the work of clerks and other employees of his department. The persons thus employed by the various departments of the public service are called civil servants, and may be spoken of collectively as the civil service of the province.

Below is given a list of the departments of government in Alberta, with brief notes explaining the nature of their work.

The Department of Public Works.

The opening up and improvement of roads, the bridging of rivers and the erection and care of provincial public buildings are prominent among the duties of this department.

The Department of Education.

This department exercises a general supervision over schools and other educational institutions established under the laws of the province.

The Department of Agriculture.

Under this department comes the care of the agricultural interests of the province. It administers the laws regarding such matters as herding, fencing, dairying, allotment of brands, destruction of noxious weeds and protection against prairie and forest fires, and also those relating to hospitals and public health.

The Department of the Attorney-General.

This department superintends matters connected with the administration of justice in the province and advises the different departments of the government in legal matters. It also administers the laws regarding liquor licenses and registry offices. The head of the department is known as the Attorney-General.

The Department of Railways and Telephones.

The construction and operation of the provincial telephone system, the encouragement of railway extension and approval of routes are some of the chief duties of this department.

The Department of Municipal Affairs.

This department administers the Local Improvement Act, the Educational Tax Act, and the acts relating to city, town, village and rural municipalities. It makes regulations respecting the method of recording, accounting and auditing in connection with municipal affairs, and adjusts disputes between municipalities.

The Treasury Department.

The head of this department is termed the Provincial Treasurer, and, as the name suggests, the department acts in the capacity of treasurer for the province, receiving and disbursing provincial funds under statutory or other proper authority.

The Provincial Auditor sees that expenditures of money are properly authorized, and that money is applied to the purposes for which it was voted by the legislature.

The Department of the Provincial Secretary.

The head of this department, the Provincial Secretary, is the medium of formal communication with other governments, and has the custody of the Seal of the province. He countersigns and seals commissions, etc., in His Majesty's name, and is entrusted with the registers and archives of the province.

In the foregoing list, except where stated otherwise, the official name of the head of any department is obtained by substituting the word "Minister" for "Department."

5. The Legislature.

The legislative or law-making body in the province is known as the "Legislature." It is composed of the people's elected representatives and closely corresponds to the Dominion "House of Commons." As already stated we have in Alberta nothing resembling the Dominion Senate.

Aside from the differences that arise from there being no second chamber, business is conducted in the legislature in much the same way as in the Dominion parliament. There is a speaker, a clerk of the assembly and a sergeant-at-arms. At the opening of a session of the legislature a "speech from the throne" is read by the lieutenant-governor. Debate is conducted in the assembly and in the committees under the

same rules as in the Dominion House of Commons. The full term of a legislature is five years, but dissolution may come about sooner, and the elections be brought on exactly as in the case of the House of Commons at Ottawa.

Members of the legislature, like those of the House of Commons, do not need to own property, but they are required to be British subjects and of the full age of twenty-one years. The provincial House has a membership of 41. The sessional indemnity is $1,500. The salary of the lieutenant-governor is $9,000 per year.

6. The Provincial Voters' List.

In order to be entitled to be registered as a voter and to vote at a provincial election a person must be a British subject, of the male sex, of the full age of twenty-one years, and must have lived in the province for one year and in the constituency for three months immediately preceding the registration of voters or the issue of the writ of election.

A list of voters of the several electoral divisions is made and revised from time to time

as may be determined by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, by whom are appointed a registrar for each electoral division and a District Court judge to act as "revising officer" for such electoral division. Each electoral division is divided by the registrar into polling subdivisions of convenient size for purposes of registration and polling. The registrar also appoints deputy registrars before whom applicants for registration may appear at a time and place of which due notice has been given. If the deputy registrar is satisfied with the answers which an applicant gives to certain prescribed questions regarding his qualifications, he writes opposite the applicant's name in the register the word "allowed," but if it appears to him that the applicant is not entitled to be registered he announces his decision that the application is refused and enters the word "disallowed" opposite the applicant's name. If the applicant still thinks that he has a right to be registered he may appeal to the revising officer. In this case he receives from the deputy registrar a certificate that he has applied for registration and has been refused.

If, owing to sickness or other good cause, a person who desires to register is not able to be present, there should be sent to the deputy registrar a notice signed by himself or by somebody to whom he is well known. This notice must be accompanied by complete answers to the prescribed questions as to his qualifications, and a declaration of their truth made before a proper officer, such as a justice of the peace, a notary public, or a commissioner for taking oaths.

Some time later the revising officer, who is the judge of the district court or a lawyer appointed by him, goes over the list of voters and decides that the names of those registered shall remain except where some one has made an objection in proper form. In this latter event the persons to whose names objection has been made must show to the revising officer's satisfaction that they have the proper qualifications to entitle them to vote. If anyone appeals against the deputy registrar's dicision he must present the certificate which he has received. The decision of the revising officer is final.

Outside of the cities and towns another method of making the voters' list may be adopted, if the

Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council so provides. In this case the last revised voters' list is not considered at all. Instead, the deputy registrar compiles the list by visiting each dwelling house and making careful personal inquiry.

The Alberta Election Act provides that certain persons shall not be allowed to vote. Those thus disqualified are the following:—Judges of the Supreme Court and of the District Courts; persons declared disqualified as a penalty for corrupt practices at elections; prisoners undergoing punishment for criminal offences; patients in lunatic asylums; Indians.

7. Elections.

The elections for the provincial legislature are conducted in much the same way as are those for the Dominion parliament. Equal care is taken that the voting shall be secret, and there are similar rules in force as to the marking of ballots by the voters.

But at Dominion and provincial elections in Alberta and Saskatchewan the method of nomination is not quite the same as that already described for the other provinces (see page 69).

Thus a candidate's nomination papers are valid, if signed by four or more electors. Further, the candidates deposit, which is as elsewhere two hundred dollars for a Dominion election, is one hundred dollars for a provincial election.

A special system is adopted for the compilation of voters' lists for use at a Dominion election in Alberta and Saskatchewan. About the time when the writ is issued, "enumerators" are appointed by the returning officer who in this matter acts with two justices of the peace. It is the duty of each enumerator to make out a list of voters for a part of the constituency, and to post it up eight days before polling day. If any person who is qualified to vote finds that his name has been omitted from the list, he should apply to the enumerator to have it properly entered. The lists are finally closed two days before polling day.

A person whose name is not on the voters' list but who claims to be qualified to vote, may come before the deputy returning officer while the polling is in progress and take the oath of qualification, and upon such oath having been taken the deputy returning officer shall at once

cause the name of such person to be added to the voters' list. Should, however, a representative of one of the candidates, before the ballot is deposited in the box, charge such person with voting illegally, the ballot is securely sealed in an envelope marked "disputed ballot" and deposited in the box to be disposed of when the court decides whether or not the person was actually qualified to vote.

8. The Subsidy.

The money to defray the expenses of the government of each province comes very largely from the Dominion treasury. According to the terms of the British North America Act, the Dominion must pay to each province annually a certain sum known as the "provincial subsidy." It has been necessary to increase the amount of this subsidy more than once since confederation. In fact, the system has been found by experience to be rather unsatisfactory. It was adopted originally as a compensation to the colonies when, on entering as provinces into the Dominion, they gave up the right of collecting customs and excise duties.

The provinces that existed separately before the union have an important source of revenue

from their public lands, which were retained by them and were not given up to the Dominion. Especially is this the case, when these lands happen to be covered with excellent timber or to contain valuable minerals. The province of Ontario, for example, by sale of its timber obtains each year a very considerable sum of money. On the other hand, Alberta, as we know, did not exist as an original province, and when it received provincial powers from the Dominion, it was not given the public land within its boundaries but instead an annual grant in money. This latter forms one item in the Alberta subsidy.

At the time of confederation the original provinces had public debts which they had incurred in the construction of public works of various kinds. As we have already learned, the Dominion assumed this indebtedness. Provision, however, was made in the case of some of the provinces that, if their debts were less than certain specified sums, they should receive from the Dominion five per cent. per year on whatever the difference might be. But from the first there was dissatisfaction with the agreement, and a

demand for "better terms" was made. As a result, it was decided finally to allow to each province as additional compensation five per cent. per year on a stated sum. When Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta were admitted as provinces, they were likewise allowed five per cent. interest on a stated sum of money as a "debt allowance." We have thus another item in the subsidy.

The remaining items consist of an annual allowance of 80 cents for each person resident in the province, and a grant to meet the general expenses of government. There was also a special annual allowance to be paid to Alberta for five years after the establishment of the province in order to assist in the construction of public buildings.

The subsidy in 1912 was as follows :

Allowance in lieu of provincial lands	$375,000.00
Five per cent. interest on capital as "debt allowance"	405,375.00
Eighty cents per head on population	299,730,40
Allowance for government.....	180,000.00
	$1,260,105.40

NOTES.—"Ordinances." The statutes passed by the old territorial legislature were called "ordinances." These ordinances continue in force until they are repealed or amended by the provincial legislature. Hence the term still frequently occurs.

"Athabaska and Peace River." Special statutory provisions are made to apply to these sparsely settled constituencies. It is not necessary that nominations and elections be held in these electoral divisions on the same dates as in the other divisions of the province; and the returning officers in these cases are allowed a few days longer to complete arrangements for the holding of the elections.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are the position and population of Alberta? When did it become a province?

2. What are the names of the lieutenant-governor and the premier?

3. Of what does the legislature consist? How many members are there in the legislative assembly?

4. Which party is in power in the legislature? What is its majority?

5. How must one proceed in order to have his name entered on the provincial voters' list? What qualifications are necessary?

6. How is the provincial subsidy calculated?

ALBERTA EDITION.

TOPIC XII.

Municipal Government.

1. Introduction.

We have up to the present been learning about the government of the nation or of its larger divisions, the provinces. We shall now study the government of the small divisions, as the city, town, village and rural municipality. We have thus far been trying to understand our systems of national and provincial administration. We shall now take up the subject of "municipal government." The word "municipal" is derived from a latin word which means a town or city having certain special rights of self-government.

2. Kinds of Municipalities.

Municipalities are formed in accordance with laws passed by the provincial legislature. In Alberta there are four classes of municipalities,—Rural, Village, Town and City. In addition to these there are "Local Improvement Districts," which were organized with a view to providing for the making of roads and bridges,

and the extermination of animals and weeds injurious to agriculture. These districts have very limited powers, and are gradually being displaced by "rural municipalities." These are being formed as the country districts become more populous, and require more complete organization and wider powers than local improvement districts possess. A city, a town, or a village which may, in whole or in part, be situated within the limits of a rural municipality, does not form a part of such municipality for purposes of municipal government. But whether you live in a city, in a town, in a village or in the country, there is municipal organization of some kind in which you are interested.

A municipal government deals with matters that concern us very closely. For instance, it sees that roads and streets are made, that bridges are built, that sidewalks are laid down, that drains and sewers are constructed, that parks and pleasure grounds are provided, that articles of food and drink sold in the shops are of proper quality, and that the lives of citizens are protected by police.

3. Municipal Councils.

The governing body consists, in cities and towns, of a council with a mayor at its head. In a city the councillors are called "aldermen." In a village and in a rural municipality the councillors elect one of their number as chairman. In a rural municipality the chairman is known as the "reeve." In both cases provision is made for the appointment of another member of the council to preside in the absence of the chairman. He is called the deputy chairman or the deputy reeve as the case may be.

In towns the number of councillors is six, while in cities the number of aldermen may be increased to ten. In both cases they are elected for two years, and one-half retire each year. Those retiring may, of course, offer themselves for re-election if still qualified for the office. The mayor of a town in Alberta is elected for two years while the mayor of a city is elected for only one year. The council of a village is composed of three members, and that of a rural municipality of five members elected annually in each case.

In cities and towns all members of council must be British subjects, of the male sex, of the full age of twenty-one years, able to read and write, and resident within the municipality or not more than two miles from it. In addition they must own freehold estate within the municipality, assessed in their own names, to the value of at least $500. In rural municipalities councillors must be male resident electors of the municipality, who are of the full age of twenty-one years, are able to read and write, and who either are British subjects or have declared their intentions of becoming British subjects. Practically the same qualifications apply in the case of village councillors.

No mayor, alderman, chairman, reeve or councillor is allowed to sell goods to, or to enter into a contract with, the municipality which he represents.

4. Municipal Voters' List.

Any person of the full age of twenty-one years who is actually resident within the municipality and whose name appears on the last revised assessment roll as the owner or occupant of assessable property within the municipality is

entitled to have his name entered on the voters' list of a village or a rural municipality, and such persons are allowed to vote at municipal elections provided they have paid all taxes due the municipality up to December 31st of the preceding year.

In cities and towns also both men and women may have their names placed on the voters' list, provided they are of the full age of twenty-one years and are assessed according to the last revised assessment roll for at least $200. Great care is taken to have the voters' list as complete and accurate as possible. The assessor (in cities) or the secretary-treasurer (in towns) posts up before September 15th in each year a list of voters compiled from the last revised assessment roll.

Now if a person has been resident in the municipality before July 1st of the current year and continuously since, and his name does not appear or is wrongly put down, he should give notice in proper form to the assessor (or secretary-treasurer) on or before November 1st that he will apply to the council to have his name entered on the voters' list. Anyone who has left the

municipality or has, before October 1st, disposed of the property on which he bases his qualifications as a voter, is not entitled to have his name left on the voters' list. Any elector may make application on or before November 1st to have the name of such person struck off and the name of the proper person, if any, substituted. On or before November 5th, the assessor (or secretary-treasurer) posts up a list of these applications, and notifies the persons interested as to the time and place fixed by council for hearing applications. Then, on or before November 15th, the council meets as a "court of revision" to revise the voters' list, and hears and decides upon all applications, whether the applicants are present or not. The voters' list thus finally revised will be the one in use at the coming municipal elections, and no person will be permitted to vote unless his name is entered upon it.

5. Municipal Elections.

Municipal elections are held annually. They are conducted by secret ballot in very much the same way as those for the Dominion parliament and the provincial legislature. In cities and towns, a meeting of the electors must be called

for 8 o'clock in the evening of the last Monday in November, to hear the auditor's statement of the finances of the municipality for the portion of the year ending October 31st (see section 6), and to receive reports from the mayor and the chairmen of the various committees of council. Nominations are held from 11 o'clock till noon on the first Monday in December. A nomination must be accompanied by the written consent of the person nominated, and also by a written statement that he is eligible for election. Polling takes place on the second Monday in December, from 10 o'clock in the morning till 7 o'clock in the afternoon. The council appoints the returning officer, and likewise the deputy returning officers, if any are required.

In villages and rural municipalities also, nominations for councillors are held on the first Monday of December. A nomination to be valid must be accompanied by a written statement signed by the person nominated, giving his consent and declaring that he is eligible for election. In rural municipalities the nomination paper must be signed by at least five resident electors. Polling takes place on the

second Monday of December. The council appoints the officers required to conduct the election.

When a city is divided into wards, an elector has only one vote for mayor, but may have the right to vote for aldermen in all the wards in which he has the proper qualification. These and many other matters are determined by the special legislation or "charter," by which the legislature gives the city its power of self-government.

6. Municipal Officers.

The officers of a municipal council are the "secretary" (in cities called the "clerk"), who keeps the books, records and accounts, the "treasurer," who receives and pays out the money belonging to the municipality, the "assessor," and lastly the "auditor," who examines all the receipts and expenditures of the municipality. The auditor must prepare annual reports of the financial affairs of the municipality for the consideration of the council and the electors. In villages and rural municipalities a copy of the auditor's statement is sent by mail to every elector. In cities and towns the auditor must

also make a report to council at least every three months. Cities and towns frequently have an additional officer called the "solicitor," whose duty it is to give the council advice in legal matters.

The same person may hold more than one office. Thus the duties of the secretary and the treasurer are often combined. In villages and rural municipalities the secretary or secretary-treasurer usually acts as assessor.

7. Council Meetings.

The various municipal acts provide that the first meeting of a newly elected council shall be held on the first Monday in January. But the council itself decides when and how often it shall meet after this occasion.

The head of the council (mayor, chairman or reeve) presides at the meetings of the council and sees that the business is conducted in an orderly way. In his absence the deputy or a chairman takes his place and exercises the powers possessed by the regular presiding officer. Voting on any question in council is always by open vote and not by ballot. The presiding

officer votes as an ordinary member of council and, if there is an equality of votes on any question it is considered as decided in the negative.

A council finds it convenient to choose permanent committees for the year to have charge of such matters as, for example, the municipal finances, the public works, the markets, police and fire protection. These committees act as a sort of executive in their particular departments, making reports to council and carrying out its decisions. Special committees are also appointed as required, for the consideration of any important matter. The rules for the conduct of business in municipal councils are, as far as circumstances permit, the same as those in use in the House of Commons and the Legislative Assembly.

8. By-Laws.

Any legislation passed by a municipal council has the name "by-law." In order to have force, it must be under the seal of the municipality, and be signed by the head (mayor, chairman or reeve), or by the chairman of the meeting at which it was passed, and by the secretary of the municipality.

The subjects regarding which a municipal council has power to legislate are carefully explained in the various municipal acts, and form a very long list which it is not necessary to give here. In general, everything that concerns the municipality, and is not otherwise provided for by the statutes of the province, is under the control of the municipal council.

9. Municipal Taxation.

The general municipal acts of the legislature or the special acts (or charters) which give to cities their local self-government, determine what property within a municipality is subject to taxation and what property is exempt. As a rule the principle of "land tax" is adhered to as far as may be found practicable. Under this system land only is assessed, and for assessment purposes the value of buildings and other improvements is not considered. Incomes and stock-in-trade are not assessed.

In order to meet the expenses of municipal government and municipal enterprises the council imposes a direct tax on rateable property within the municipality. In the first place

an officer, called the "assessor," estimates the value of such property, and his record is known as the "assessment roll." As it is important that great care should be exercised in the preparation of this roll, there is a stated period allowed for appeal against the statement of the assessor. All appeals come for decision before the municipal council, or before the city commissioners in cities which have such officials. If dissatisfied with this first decision, the owner may appeal to the judge of the district court.

On the revised assessment of the municipality the council fixes each year a rate of taxation which it considers will yield enough revenue to pay municipal expenses for a year. In cities, towns and villages this rate is stated as being a certain number of mills in the dollar. A mill is the one-thousandth part of a dollar. Thus, if taxes could be so low as one mill in the dollar, a person, with property assessed at $1,000, would pay one dollar in taxes. In local improvement districts the rate is fixed at a certain number of cents per acre.

10. Exemption from Taxation.

It must be noted that there are certain kinds of property that are exempt from taxation. Subject to certain variations or restrictions the list is as follows:—(1) Property owned by the crown, (2) property specially exempted by law, (3) property reserved for the use of Indians, (4) property used for places of public worship, (5) property used as sites for universities, schools, hospitals, etc., (6) property used for agricultural society purposes, (7) land used as a public cemetery.

11. Borrowing.

Sometimes in order to carry out some expensive public undertaking such, for example, as the construction of a system of waterworks or the erection of a town hall, a municipal council may find it advisable or necessary to borrow money instead of defraying the whole expense from the year's taxes. But before a by-law to this effect can be finally passed by the council a vote of the ratepayers must be taken as at an ordinary election. No elector, however, is admitted to the poll unless he is assessed as the owner of land within the municipality. A person thus

qualified is called a "burgess." In some cases the law provides that two-thirds of the burgesses voting must give their assent before the by-law can be adopted, while in other cases a simple majority is sufficient. In the case of a rural municipality the Department of Municipal Affairs must officially approve a proposed loan before effect can be given to a money by-law even though it may have received the support of the required majority of the burgesses.

12. City Commissioners.

A city council has power to appoint one or more commissioners who, with the mayor, act as either an executive or an advisory body, or both, as may be prescribed by the city charter. The commissioners are not members of council, but are chosen because of their special knowledge of certain branches of civic business and are paid suitable salaries. Each commissioner is, as a rule, placed in charge of certain departments of the city's work. One of the duties required of them by law is to submit annually to the council at the first meeting held after the election, their recommendations and their estimates of expenditures for the year.

NOTES.—"Rural Municipalities" comprise ordinarily an area of 324 square miles in a block 18 miles square, and are laid out as far as possible on a uniform plan. There has been prepared by the Minister of Municipal Affairs a map of the province on which the future municipalities, called "territorial units," are marked. All municipalities are formed as far as can be done in accordance with this map. No municipality is organized unless it contains as actual residents a population averaging at least one person to each square mile. Municipalities are formed only after petition to the Minister of Municipal Affairs and a vote of the electors. The annual elections take place on the second Monday in December and the nominations one week earlier.

"Local Improvement Districts" are territorial units organized with certain restricted powers for the making of roads and bridges and the extermination of animals and weeds injurious to agriculture. They may be assigned by the provincial government the control of any public work or building. By an act of the legislature it was provided that all the original local improvement districts should cease to exist in December, 1912, and that thereafter such districts should be formed from the territorial units. Each district is divided by the Minister of Municipal Affairs into areas of uniform shape and size to which numbers are assigned. The council consists of one representative from each division. A chairman elected by the council is the presiding officer. The annual elections take place on the second Monday in January, and the nominations one week earlier.

A "Hamlet," that is, a community not large enough to be incorporated, is under the control of the council of the rural municipality in which it is situated; but one-half of the taxes collected in the hamlet must be expended on public works within it.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the name of your municipality? What kind of municipality is it?

2. How many members of council are there? Is your municipality divided into wards? Who is mayor, chairman or reeve?

3. Who are entitled to have their names placed on the voters' list?

4. When do nominations and elections take place in your municipality?

5. Who are the officers of your municipality?

6. When are council meetings usually held? Name some of the committees.

7. What is the rate of taxation? What taxes does your father pay?

8. Mention some kinds of property that are free from taxation.

ALBERTA EDITION.

TOPIC XIII.

The Courts of Law.

1. Introduction.

We have been studying thus far how the laws are made. We wish now to learn how they are administered. The administration of the laws is the duty of the "judicial" power. We have already learned what the legislative powers are and how they belong to parliament and to the legislature. On the other hand the judicial power belongs not to parliament or to the legislature, but to certain special bodies called "courts of law." A court consists of a judge with or without a jury. A jury is a group of men of different numbers for different courts, chosen to give a decision on the facts submitted to the court, and are selected from the district in which the sittings of the court are held. The highest courts generally have no jury.

2. The English Common Law and the Statute Law.

It is necessary to have laws for the many and complex relations that unite men in our modern civilization, such as their business, and their

family and social relations. If a man lends money, the law must state how he shall set about collecting it, should the debtor not be willing to pay promptly; if he desires to make a will the law must tell in what manner such an act can be properly performed, or if he dies intestate it provides a way for disposing of his property; and if one man wrongs another the law must declare what is his remedy and how it may be enforced.

Our system of law was not made in a day, but has grown up gradually through the long course of centuries, according as various customs and precedents become accepted as fair and just. Judges, in dealing with particular cases that came before them, followed certain general principles of justice, and as a result of their decisions, there has arisen a great body of law which applies to innumerable cases. This law which we have inherited from England, we call the "English Common Law." The English common law is at the foundation of our legal system throughout the Dominion (except in the province of Quebec). In order to change the common law or make other laws to suit our own

time and country, parliament and legislature are, as we have seen, constantly passing new acts or statutes, and these form what is known as the "statute law."

3. Criminal and Civil Law.

There is an important distinction between certain kinds of law which, among others, the Dominion parliament may make, and those which the provincial legislature has power to enact. Thus, in addition to laws governing the navy, postal service, commerce, etc., parliament alone may make laws relating to crime and criminals. These are included under the term "criminal law," which has to do with such offences as murder, forgery, theft, etc. That which affects the property and the civil rights of citizens and their relations to each other is referred to as the "civil law." The right of enactment of certain classes of civil law is with the Federal parliament, and others with the provincial legislatures.

4. A Civil Suit.

Now, the constitution of the various courts of law and the powers that belong to them form a somewhat difficult subject. So it will be better

at first to follow the proceedings in two supposed cases, and learn in this incidental way what we can about the courts.

Let us take first a civil suit. We shall suppose that we wish to recover a certain amount of money that Mr. B. owes us. We are "plaintiffs," because we enter the suit. Mr. B. is the "defendant," because he is defending his case. We make a brief statement of our claim in a writ of summons which we secure from the proper court, and this is "served on" the defendant, who has to put in a "defence," that is, give a reason why he ought not to pay. If the defendant were not to put in any defence, judgment would go "by default," and we could then proceed to collect our account by having the goods of the defendant seized and sold.

If the "defence" has been properly entered, the suit will come up for trial at the next sitting of the court. Although a person may present his own case in court, it is nearly always better to engage a lawyer for the purpose. It is a lawyer's business to know the law; and no one not trained as he, can possibly bring out so well the important points and avoid making

disastrous mistakes. A lawyer is usually consulted before any suit is brought at all, and allowed time to study the case fully. Therefore, we shall suppose that we have engaged the lawyer, Mr. X. The defendant has engaged Mr. Y.

When the day of trial comes, our case may not be the first one called. Perhaps the judge may not reach it till the next day. But at last it is called. Our lawyer, or "counsel," opens the case by stating what our claim is. We are asked to take our place as witnesses and give evidence. We are sworn "to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." Then by questions our counsel leads us to tell all we know about the circumstances and the nature of the claim. After he is done, the defendant's counsel "cross-questions" us, that is, asks us further questions, intending to bring out any point that is favourable to the defendant's side.

If there are other persons besides ourselves who know anything about the matter, they have been ordered to attend the court, and are now sworn, questioned and cross-questioned. When our witnesses have all been heard, the defendant

and his witnesses are sworn and give their evidence in the same way. Then the lawyers sum up the evidence as a whole, each emphasizing the points that in his opinion favour his side.

With this the case is concluded, and the judge gives his decision at once, or he "reserves" the matter for fuller study, and the decision is given later. The side that loses usually pays the costs of the trial, although this is not so invariably. If the loser is not satisfied he may "appeal" to a higher court. But appeals are expensive, and are not usually taken unless there is good reason to hope that the decision of the higher court will be favourable.

5. Criminal Code.

In the year 1892 the Dominion Parliament enacted what is known as "The Criminal Code of Canada." This contains in concise form the "Common" and "Statutory" Law in regard to Criminal matters and Criminal procedure. It is to be remembered however, that the "Common" Law in regard to crimes is still in force in so far as it may be necessary to explain the meaning of

the Criminal Code or to provide for cases which the makers of the Code did not foresee.

By the Criminal Code, crimes are broadly divided into two classes:—(1) "Offences," (2) "Indictable Offences" (in dīt' a bl). The first class, namely "Offences," includes the less serious crimes, as for example,—wilfully damaging the property of another. Crimes of this class are tried without a jury before a Justice of the Peace, or in some cases two Justices of the Peace sitting together. *

6. A Criminal Case.

Let us now see what happens when an "Offence" has been committed. The first step is the "laying of the information," that is to say, someone who is familiar with the facts makes a complaint to a Justice of the Peace that a certain person has committed an "Offence." The Justice of the Peace then issues either a "Summons" or a "Warrant." These terms are explained elsewhere. When the day of trial comes the Justice of the Peace tells the accused person, or as it is

* A Police Magistrate has the powers of two Justices of the Peace and therefore can try any case which could be tried either by one Justice of the Peace or two.

generally expressed, "the accused," the "Offence" he is charged with, and asks him whether he is "guilty" or "not guilty." If he says he is guilty the Justice of the Peace may at once proceed to "sentence" him. If he says that he is not guilty witnesses are called for the "prosecution," which is the term applied to the side of the party who charges the "accused" with the offence. These witnesses state facts which go to show that the "accused" is guilty. The "defence," that is the side of the "accused," may call witnesses to show that he is not guilty. Either the "prosecution," or the "defence" may employ lawyers to plead their case if they wish. After the Justice of the Peace has heard the evidence for both sides he decides whether the "accused" is "guilty" or not. If he decides that he is "not guilty" he discharges him and may order the "prosecution" to pay the expenses of the proceedings. These expenses are called the "costs." If he decides that the "accused" is "guilty" he may order him to pay a fine together with the "costs," or to undergo imprisonment or even to pay a fine and "costs" and undergo imprisonment as well. Either the "prosecution" or the "defence" may

appeal from the decision of the Justice of the Peace to a Judge of the District Court. If the "accused" has been sentenced to imprisonment he may be set at liberty until the date of hearing of his appeal provided he gives "bail" to the satisfaction of a Justice of the Peace.

The second class, namely "Indictable Offences," includes the more serious crimes, for example,—Murder, Robbery. Crimes of this class can generally only be tried before a judge of the Supreme or District Courts, but there are some exceptions to this rule, which will be stated later.

Let us now consider what happens when an "Indictable Offence" has been committed. Just as in the case of an "Offence," the first step is the "laying of an information," and the issuing of a "Summons" or "Warrant." When the "accused" is before the Justice of the Peace at the appointed time, the Justice of the Peace proceeds to hold what is called a "Preliminary Enquiry."* Witnesses are called for both sides,

*A "Preliminary Enquiry" is not the same thing as a Trial. A Justice of the Peace has no power to "try" an "Indictable Offence." The "Preliminary Enquiry" which he holds in the case of an "Indictable Offence" is merely an investigation to determine whether or not there is enough evidence to have the accused sent up for trial by a higher Court.

just as in the case in which an "Offence" is tried before a Justice of the Peace. After all the evidence has been heard by the Justice of the Peace, there are three courses open to him:— (1) if he is of the opinion that no case has been made out against the "accused," he may discharge him; (2) if he is of the opinion that the evidence is strong enough to warrant the placing of the accused on trial, but is not strong enough to justify his committal to prison to await trial, he may either by himself or jointly with another Justice, admit the "accused" to bail to appear for trial at the next Court having power to deal with the case; and (3) if he is of the opinion that the evidence against the "accused" is strong, and the offence is a serious one, he may commit him to prison to await his trial at the next Court having power to deal with the matter. If a man has once been committed to prison to await trial, only a Judge of the Supreme or District Courts can grant bail, and in some cases only a Judge of the Supreme Court.

We will now suppose that the time has come for the "accused" to be tried before a Judge of the District or Supreme Court and a jury. There

is a lawyer appointed by the province to arrange for the trial of persons accused of crimes. He is the agent or representative of the Attorney-General of the province and is colloquially called the "crown prosecutor." One of his duties is in regard to the preparation of a formal charge against the prisoner. This is a written statement which sets forth the offence of which the prisoner is accused. The jury is one specially chosen for the case and consists of six men. Before the accused can be declared guilty or innocent, all the six men have to agree. If the jury cannot agree on a verdict it is dismissed, and the trial has to begin again before a new jury.

When the prisoner is brought into the court, the charge against him is read to him, and he is asked to say whether he is guilty or not guilty of the crime. Usually he will say that he is "not guilty." Then the members of the jury are chosen from lists furnished by the sheriff. Both the prosecuting counsel and the prisoner's counsel have the right to object to any juror, if it is thought that he may not act fairly either from supposed friendship or supposed enmity towards the prisoner, or from some other cause.

After the jury has been chosen, the trial begins. Proceedings resemble in a general way those already described in civil suits. At the close of the addresses of counsel for each side, the judge sums up the case for the jury, carefully stating what questions they have to decide. In a case of murder it may be that the jury will have to decide whether the accused person is actually the guilty one, and, if he is, whether he committed the murder wilfully or did it while trying to defend himself against attack from the murdered man.

The jury then retire and discuss the case among themselves, until they come to a decision. Then they all return to the court-room, and their leader, called a "foreman," announces whether they have found the prisoner "guilty" or "not guilty." The judge, in accordance with the verdict, either sentences the prisoner or allows him to go.

7. Speedy Trial of Indictable Offences.

Provision is made by the Criminal Code for what is known as "The Speedy Trial of Indictable Offences." When a person is accused of any of the Indictable Offences which a District

Court Judge has power to try, and has been sent to prison by a Justice of the Peace to await his trial, he might have to remain in prison for a considerable time if he had no friends and were therefore unable to get bail, since the sittings of the District Court are held only at stated periods, and in the outlying districts only a few times per year. To prevent this hardship to the accused, it is provided by the Speedy Trials part of the Criminal Code that the accused person may, with his own consent, be tried by a District Court Judge at once.

8. Summary Trial of Indictable Offences.

Mention was made that there are certain exceptions to the rule that Indictable Offences are triable only before a Judge of the Supreme or District Courts. These exceptions are :—(1) Certain "Indictable Offences" which are regarded as of a more or less trivial character, may be tried by two Justices of the Peace sitting together, or by a Police Magistrate. In some cases the consent of the accused person is necessary, and in others it is not; (2) a Police Magistrate for a city or town having a population of 2,500 or more, may, with the consent of

the accused person, try him for any offence for which he could be tried by a District Court Judge, and may sentence him to the same punishment.

If the lawyer for either side thinks that the judge who is trying the case has not stated the law correctly he may ask him to refer it to a Court of Appeal for their opinion on the matter. If the Judge will not do this the lawyer may appeal to the Court of Appeal against his decision. Until this question is decided the sentence may be suspended or sentence need not be passed at all, but the accused may be admitted to bail to come up for sentence when called upon.

Referring a question to the Court of Appeal in this way does not of itself suspend the sentence passed on one who has been found guilty. Sometimes when a serious mistake has been made a new trial may be ordered.

9. Pardons.

The power to pardon a person convicted of a crime rests with the Governor-General of Canada, and is exercised by him on the recommendation of the Minister of Justice. If there is good reason for showing mercy in a special case, the

minister recommends to the Governor-General that the prisoner receive a full pardon, or that he be pardoned after a certain time.

10. The Alberta Law Courts.

The courts of law in Alberta may be briefly described as follows :

1. The District Courts are held at times and places specified by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council in each of the judicial districts into which the province is divided. Special sittings may be ordered by a judge to dispose of unfinished or urgent business. These courts try suits for damages and debt where the amount claimed is not more than three hundred dollars, but they have no jurisdiction in regard to wills or titles to land, or in actions for malicious prosecution, malicious arrest, false imprisonment, libel or slander. Appeals are allowed to the District Courts from the decisions of justices of the peace and police magistrates. Appeals are allowed in civil actions from the District Courts to the Supreme Court acting as a court of appeal, where the amount in dispute is over fifty dollars.

2. The Supreme Court of Alberta conducts the trial of all manner of suits without limitation, whether criminal or civil, with or without juries. Sittings are held by one of the judges at times specified by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council in each of the judicial districts of the province. Appeals may be allowed from the judge's decisions to the Supreme Court acting as a court of appeal.

The Supreme Court is the court of appeal for the province, but, when it is acting in this capacity, at least three judges must be present. The Chief Justice of Alberta, who is the judge highest in rank, presides on such occasions. This court sits twice in Edmonton and twice in Calgary during each year.

The judges of all courts are appointed and paid by the Dominion.

11. Court of Divorce and Matrimonial Causes.

The British North America Act provided for the establishment of divorce courts, but since confederation no courts for the trial of matrimonial causes have yet been established by the Dominion parliament. Those provinces however

which had such courts before entering confederation have retained them. Consequently some divorce cases are dealt with by the provincial courts (N.B., N.S., P.E.I., B.C.), and others (Que., Ont., Man., Sask., Alta.) by the Dominion parliament on the recommendation of the divorce committee of the Senate.

12. The Supreme Court of Canada.

Above the courts of the provinces come those of the Dominion. Of the latter the one about which it is most important for us to know, is the Supreme Court of Canada. This court consists of a Chief Justice and five other judges. Appeals may be taken to it from the higher courts of the province in cases where the point of law involved is an important one. It has, moreover, the duty of interpreting our constitution, whenever difficulties arise. The Dominion government may refer any question of the kind to this court in order to secure its opinion upon it.

13. The Privy Council.

Finally, above all the courts of the colonies stands a court in England called the "Judicial Committee of the Privy Council," or more

briefly, the "Privy Council." As may be inferred from the name, the judges of this court are members of His Majesty's Privy Council in Great Britain (not the Privy Council for Canada described under Topic V.), and are considered to form a division of that ancient body. An appeal to the Privy Council is allowed only when the case involves a very important point of law, or the understanding of a provision of the constitution.

NOTES.—The "sheriff" is the chief executive officer of the law in a judicial district, who sees that the sentences and judgments of the courts are carried out. He also summons the juries and has charge of the jail. A "constable" is an inferior officer who makes arrests, serves summonses or other papers at the order of a magistrate, sheriff or court of law. A "summons" is a written command issued to a defendant or witness to appear before a court. A "warrant" is a document giving authority to a person to do a certain thing. A common use of the warrant is to give authority to a constable to arrest a person accused of a crime.

In Alberta there is a "Surrogate Court" for each judicial district. It exercises jurisdiction in all matters relating to wills and the administration of the estates of deceased persons. Appeal may be made to a judge of the Supreme Court, if the value of the property bequeathed exceeds two hundred dollars.

The "Exchequer Court of Canada." This is a court of the Dominion consisting of one judge who resides at Ottawa. It has jurisdiction in all claims against the Crown as well as in cases relating to copyright and trade-mark. The presiding judge visits the different parts of the Dominion from time to time to try cases.

"Juries." A jury in the province of Alberta is composed of six men and their finding must be unanimous in both criminal and civil

cases. Certain civil cases do not require juries and in some instances a case may be tried before a jury only when application is made by one of the parties concerned.

As will be inferred from the statement on page 139, there is no "grand jury" in Alberta. The duty of such a jury, where it exists, is not to try the prisoner but to decide whether there is sufficient evidence to justify his being sent to trial. In the Province of Alberta the trial of any person charged with an indictable offence is commenced by a formal charge in writing setting forth as in an indictment the offence wherewith he is charged. Such charge may be preferred by the Attorney-General, or any agent of the Attorney-General, or by any person with the written consent of the Attorney-General, or by order of the court. To prepare and prefer such charge is one of the duties of the agent of the Attorney-General, and when such charge is preferred the accused must go on trial before the judge and jury.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the difference between the criminal and the civil law?

2. Write an account of an imaginary trial in which the plaintiff is suing the defendant for debt. Give full particulars of the case.

3. Who is the Chief Justice of Alberta? Of what court is he a judge?

4. Who has the power to pardon a person convicted of a crime?

5. Name the courts of law of the province of Alberta. Who appoints the judges?

ALBERTA EDITION.

TOPIC XIV.

EDUCATION.

1. Introduction.

We now come to a topic in which you, who read this book, will no doubt have a more direct interest than you have in many of the topics already discussed. The name "school," if you live in the country, will probably call to your mind an unassuming building standing near a public road, at which gather from day to day a small group of boys and girls and one teacher. On the other hand if you live in a city or town the name will suggest to your mind a more imposing building, a large number of boys and girls and a "staff" of teachers. Let us endeavour to broaden the application of the name so as to include all educational institutions as they exist in our province from the kindergarten to the university.

2. School Districts.

The laws of the province make provision for the setting apart of areas varying in extent from a square mile or less to twenty-five square miles,

as individual "school districts," within the limits of which may be maintained one or more schools as the needs of the district may require. Thus, the name "school district" may be applied to a sparcely-settled area within which one teacher is employed, or to a large city requiring the services of hundreds of teachers.

3. The Board of Trustees.

The affairs of every school district are managed by a Board of Trustees. These trustees attend to the business of the school district just as councillors or aldermen attend to the business of the municipality, as members of the legislature attend to the business of the province and as members of the House of Commons attend to the business of the Dominion. The Board of Trustees appoint your teacher, pay his or her salary, erect and keep in repair the school building, and administer the affairs of the district as required by the laws of the province.

The officers of the board are the "chairman," the "secretary" and the "treasurer." The last two may be the same person, who is then called the "secretary-treasurer." The books and accounts of every rural and village school district

must be examined each year, before the annual meeting, by an "official auditor," whose charges are paid by the school district. In towns and cities the auditor of the municipality performs this duty without additional payment.

4. Elections.

In rural and village school districts the board of trustees consists of three members. These are elected at a public meeting of the ratepayers, called a "school meeting," which must be held every year not later than January 15th. The chairman of the board presides. If he is not present, the meeting chooses a chairman for the occasion. The secretary of the board or some one appointed by the chairman acts as secretary. The candidates are nominated as in an ordinary public meeting, a mover and a seconder being required in each case. Should there be more than one candidate for a vacancy, a poll is held. The chairman presides as returning officer, and the secretary acting as poll clerk, records in proper form the votes for each candidate as they are given. The poll remains open for two hours.

Each trustee holds office for three years, and it is so arranged that, under ordinary circumstances, only one trustee is elected each year. When the school district is first formed, the three trustees are necessarily elected at the same time. But the person who is nominated first, or in the case of a poll receives the highest number of votes, is considered as elected for three years, the one who is nominated second, or in the case of a poll obtains the next highest number of votes, as elected for two years, and he who comes third in the order of nomination or at the poll, as elected for one year. Consequently, unless a trustee dies or vacates his office before the close of his term, there is afterwards only one trustee to be elected each year.

If, however, you live in a town or city, unless special legislation provides otherwise, the board of trustees for your school will consist of five members, each holding office for two years. When a rural or village district becomes a town district, the three trustees continue in office till the end of the year. But at the annual election, instead of electing only one trustee as on former occasions, the ratepayers choose three trustees, of

whom two are to hold office for two years and one for one year. Consequently, thereafter, the number of trustees to be elected each year under ordinary circumstances will be two and three alternately. The trustees are elected at the same time and in the same way as the mayor and councillors (or aldermen) of the municipality. If a trustee dies or vacates, the person chosen in his place holds office only for the remainder of the unexpired term.

At the election of a trustee no one is allowed to vote or be nominated, unless he is of the full age of twenty-one years, able to read and write, and a resident ratepayer who has paid all taxes due by him to the school district, up to December 31st of the preceding year.

5. Separate Schools.

The minority of the ratepayers in any school district, whether Protestant or Roman Catholic, may establish a separate school district within it, and in such a case these ratepayers are liable only for the school taxes which they impose upon themselves. In order to form a separate school district, a petition must be signed by three resident ratepayers and forwarded to the Minister

of Education. A vote of the ratepayers who belong to the religious faith of the minority is then taken, and, if it is favourable, the separate school district is established. A separate school district has the same powers, and is subject to the same control and inspection as a public school district.

6. The Inspector of Schools.

Besides the teacher and the trustees of your district, there is an officer who is known as the "inspector." He is appointed by the provincial government to have the oversight of the schools in a certain division of the province. He must visit regularly the schools in his division, examine their work, see whether the school buildings are kept in proper repair, and find out whether everything that is required by the Department of Education is being done. He must also make a report on all these matters to the Department.

The "Chief Inspector," whose office is at the Department of Education, is not assigned any division. He directs the work of the other inspectors, investigates alleged grievances and performs such other departmental duties as may be prescribed by the Minister of Education.

7. The Educational Council.

This council which acts in an advisory capacity consists of five members appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council to hold office for two years. At least two of the members must be Roman Catholics. All proposed regulations regarding school inspection, teachers' examinations, courses of study and text-books, must, before they are adopted, be referred to the council for its discussion and report.

8. Department of Education.

The Department of Education, with a responsible minister at its head, is in supreme control of the schools of the province. Through the Deputy Minister, with the assistance of the officers and clerks of the department, the laws of the province with respect to education are administered, and regulations prescribed in accordance with these laws are formulated and enforced.

9. Support of Schools.

In order to assist in meeting the expenses of the maintenance of our schools, the legislature provides a sum of money out of which there is paid to each school district certain grants. These

grants are based on (*a*) the number of acres of assessable land in the district, (*b*) the number of days in the year that school is kept open beyond 160 days, (*c*) the certificate of the teacher, (*d*) the regularity of the attendance of pupils, and (*e*) the character of the buildings and equipment as well as the progress of the pupils in their studies. In assigning grants where more than one teacher is employed in a school, each room is considered as a separate district.*

What money is required for each school in addition to the above grants, is collected by the rural municipality through a special tax on the school district, the amount of which is fixed by the board of trustees. But where a rural school district is entirely outside the limits of a municipality, the board of trustees makes its own

*(*a*) When a district contains 6,400 acres of assessable land, the grant is $1.20 per day for each day that school is kept open. If the district is larger, the grant is decreased, and, if it is smaller, the grant is increased. (*b*) The grant given under this head is 40 cents per day. (*c*) When a teacher has a first class certificate, the district receives an additional 10 cents per day. (*d*) The highest grant for regularity of attendance is 25 cents per day, and the lowest 5 cents per day. (*e*) This grant is determined by the inspector's report on such matters, and does not exceed 15 cents per day. One-half of the sum must be spent in buying books for the library.

assessment roll, either doing the work itself or appointing an assessor for the purpose. After completion the roll is posted, but corrections may still be made in it, by authority of the board, within a period of two months. If any person is dissatisfied with his assessment, he may appeal to the nearest justice of the peace. A further appeal is allowed to the judge of the district court.

If a considerable sum of money is required at one time as, for example, for the purchase and improvement of a school site, the erection and furnishing of a school house or of a teacher's house, and if the board considers it advisable to borrow, a by-law is passed in proper form, and notice is given to the ratepayers that application will be made to the Minister of Education for the necessary authority. If within fifteen days four ratepayers demand a poll, such must be held. If the result of the polling is favourable, the Minister of Education may authorize the board to borrow the money desired. Should a poll not be demanded, the by-law may at once be forwarded to the Minister for consideration.

To village and town districts are given legislative grants similar to those which we have already mentioned for rural districts, except that no grant is paid under the heading (*b*). For the purpose of assigning the grants where more than one teacher is employed in a school, each room is similarly considered as a separate district.*

In the case of a village district, whatever additional money is needed for the support of the school is collected by the board in taxes from the ratepayers. An assessment of real and personal property in the district is made either by the board itself, or by an assessor whom it appoints. The board acts as a court of revision. Appeal from its decision may be made to a judge of the district court. In town districts (including cities), the school taxes are levied and collected in the same way as the other municipal rates. When permission to borrow money is sought, the procedure is the same as in a rural school

*The following differences in the scale of some of the grants may be noticed. In village and town districts the grant under the heading (*a*) is not based upon the size of the district, but is fixed at 90 cents per day for all districts. A greater regularity of attendance is required than in rural districts, in order to obtain a like sum as a grant.

district, except that in a village district, in order to secure a poll, there must be ten ratepayers who make the demand, while in a town district the number of such ratepayers must be twenty.

10. **Secondary or High School Departments.**

Whenever there are a number of pupils who wish to pursue more advanced studies than those ordinarily taught in the elementary or public school grades, the board of trustees may devote certain rooms to these advanced grades. It is to be noted, however, that in Alberta these advanced classes are maintained by the same board and are subject to the same regulations as other school grades. When we speak, therefore, of our "high school" departments we refer, not to a separate institution, but merely to that section of our school which has been promoted from the elementary grades to the secondary grades. The dividing line comes between the eighth and the ninth grade, the "Public School Leaving" examination constituting promotion from the former to the latter. An additional grant is made with respect to each department or room which is devoted exclusively to "high school" grades, provided an average

attendance of twenty is maintained by such rooms.

In the cities and larger towns separate buildings are usually devoted to the work of the secondary grades.

11. Training of Teachers.

The qualification requirements for teachers consist of two parts,—the academic and the professional. The former is provided for by the high schools, the latter by the Normal Schools. The academic qualifications must be attained first, and the grade of certificate for which the candidate may take professional training will depend upon the high school grade for which he holds a diploma. Teachers who obtained their qualifications in other provinces or countries are granted recognition in Alberta if the certificates which they hold are acceptable to the Department of Education.

12. The University of Alberta.

The University of Alberta is situated on the south bank of the Saskatchewan river, in that portion of Edmonton which was formerly the city of Strathcona. It gives complete courses

leading to degrees in Arts and Science, and as need arises other faculties or departments will be added. The university courses are so adjusted that students who take the regular high school courses and pass the regular departmental examinations are admitted into the university without further examination.

The financial or business affairs of the university are managed by a Board of Governors appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, while the educational affairs are administered by a Senate composed partly of appointed members and partly of members elected by "convocation" which consists of registered graduates of this and other recognized universities. The "Chancellor" who presides over the Senate is also elected by convocation.

Questions.

1. What is the name and number of your school district? Who are the members of your board of trustees?

2. What members of your board were elected at the last election? Who are the chairman and the secretary?

3. Who is the inspector of your school, and where does he live?

4. Who are the Minister and the Deputy Minister of Education?

5. Which grades are commonly known as elementary or public school grades? Which as secondary or high school grades?

6. What are the functions of a Normal School? How many normal schools are there in Alberta? Where are they located?

7. Who is president of the University of Alberta? Chancellor? Chairman of the Board of Governors?

Duties of the Citizen.

You have in this book been studying chiefly the powers and duties of those who govern. But it must always be remembered that the ordinary citizen has powers and duties as well. He must not sit down quietly, and allow the affairs of state to go on, without feeling that he has some responsibility. Therefore, though you may be only one person in the vast total of the population, yet you have your duties to perform.

The first one is to try to understand as well as you can our system of government, and to keep yourself informed as to all the important acts of those who are in authority. In your study of public affairs you will be led beyond the bounds of the Canadian Dominion, for we have the advantage of living in a country which is part of a great empire. As you come to know better the outside world of nations, the more confident you will be of the value of our position.

Though Canada has not as yet assumed in any definite way the duties of empire, yet there is a certain imperial feeling that we should strive to develop. The British Empire is so vast that it

contains within itself nations of all languages and all religions. As a citizen of the Empire you should, therefore, have respect and toleration for the opinions of others. Our Empire cannot long continue to exist, unless it is something for which our brother nations may all have an ardent loyalty, whatever may be their creed, race or tongue. This imperial feeling will also help us in our national affairs, for it will enable us to be sympathetic with our fellow citizens throughout the Dominion.

In Canada we have what has been said by enthusiastic observers to be the most perfect constitution yet devised by man. It seems to possess all the advantages of the noble constitution of the American Republic, yet with few of the latter's defects. But constitutions are not worth the paper they are written on, and precedents not worth the time spent in remembering and recording them, if the citizens do not take an interest in the affairs of the state. And the same is true all the way down from national government to the management of the public business of the municipality and of the school division. Therefore, your second duty as a

citizen is to put your knowledge of the nation and its government to practical use by taking an active part in politics.

The most effective way to make your influence felt in politics is to become a member of a party and to attend its meetings. Then you will be able to do something to secure the nomination of good, honest men for parliament and the legislature, and to check the tendency to employ improper means in the conduct of an election campaign. There is often so much at stake in an election, that many men are willing to spend a large amount of money and to make use of all kinds of dishonourable methods rather than run the risk of losing. Moreover, various great business enterprises are ready to contribute money lavishly to election funds, if they have hopes thereby of securing favours from parliament, legislature, or council. So every citizen who loves his country should try to discover and oppose all tendencies to evil-doing in the party to which he belongs.

A third duty incumbent on you as a citizen is to be ready to assist, so far as you are able,

all good causes. You ought never to oppose them by speaking ill of them or by making them objects of ridicule. One of these causes is the thorough education of all citizens. It is the common, everyday people that make the governments, good or bad. Every person should have in his early life an opportunity to receive all the educational training that is possible for him, and within the power of the state to give. It will be found that the remedies for the evils of government and of society do not lie in the under-education of the masses of the people. On the other hand, there is no need to fear over-education, if the instruction given is of the right kind.

Another good cause of which you should speak no ill, is the effort which is being constantly made to lessen the evil of intemperance in our country. Our race from ancient times has suffered injury from the habit of drinking intoxicants to excess. It has become evident that it is at last possible for us to rid our people of this age-long curse. But the most important of all causes which we should support is that of religion. A nation that scoffs at religion is in

grave peril. Nothing can be found to take its place in the life of the people. It seems to be the only force strong enough to resist those tendencies which, if unchecked, will bring on rapid national decay and ruin.

The last duty of the citizen which we have occasion to mention, is that of endeavouring to lessen the cruelty of our civilization. When we read the history of early times, we are overpowered at the amount of suffering that seems to have been caused needlessly. In the ordinary pursuit of business and pleasure horrible and unnatural things were done. Probably some time in the future a similar charge will be brought against our own age. It would be well, if each day every one of us would think of the cruel things that we have seen done or that we ourselves have done, and then try to discover how much of the suffering thus caused might have been prevented. There is hardly any doubt that, if such a course were consistently followed, we should soon have a bright and happy world.

Rear up a nation firm and just,
A shrine of Liberty;
Raise up the earth-trod from the dust,
And make them strong and free,
Till none in all her wide domain
Be overwrought by power,
And they from every clime and strain
May bless her natal hour!
The millions in the future's hand
Look with all hope to you.
It is your duty to your land:
Canadians, be true!

Love her who guards you well and brave,
Unfeignèd loyally.
It is your right some day to have
With her th' enthroning sea,
The sway of fertile plain and isle,
The swarming homes of men,
Whom to defend and teach meanwhile
'Twill rest upon you then.
Love her howe'er her fate be cast,
And ever faithful do
Your duty to the Empire vast.
Canadians, be true!

APPENDIX I.

Parliamentary Titles.

1. Words that Precede the Name.

We speak of "His Majesty the King," "His Excellency the Governor-General," and "His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor."

The prime minister of the Dominion and the other cabinet ministers (whether at present in office or retired) have, as members of the Canadian Privy Council, the right to be styled "The Honourable." Some, however, have also been made members of the British Privy Council, and have, therefore, the title, "The Right Honourable."

The provincial premiers and the other members of the executive councils are styled "The Honourable."

A member of the Dominion Senate has the title, "The Honourable Senator."

The speakers of parliament and the legislatures have their names preceded by "The Honourable."

2. Letters that Follow the Name.

A member of the Dominion parliament is entitled to the use of the letters M.P. (that is, Member of Parliament).

A member of a provincial legislature employs the form M.P.P. (that is, Member of Provincial "Parliament"). It may be observed that we do not now apply the term "parliament" to a provincial legislature. Therefore, it would be more correct, if we wrote M.L. (Member of Legislature) or M.P.L. (Member of Provincial Legislature), but these forms have never been adopted.

In the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia, where there are two houses in the legislature, members of the legislative council and those of the legislative assembly are sometimes given the distinguishing titles M.L.C. and M.L.A., respectively. Occasionally but improperly, the form M.L.A. is used with the names of members of the legislature in the other provinces, where there is but one legislative chamber.

APPENDIX II.

Suggestions to the Teacher.

This book is intended to provide two years' work in the subject. During the first year the pupil should gain a general acquaintance with our government in its many divisions and learn to understand the meaning of the unfamiliar terms. The second year's work may include, in addition to a more thorough study of the topics treated in the book itself, a little independent investigation of questions of a more advanced character. A short list of such questions is given under Appendix IV. Many others will readily occur to the mind of the teacher. In order to obtain the necessary information pupils should be encouraged to consult the library (there should be one in every school), the newspapers, reports of governments and municipal councils, and their parents or older friends. It will probably surprise the teacher to find what an interest some will take in work of this kind. If a meeting of a mock council or parliament can be organized with the help of the senior scholars, the interest will be greatly increased.

There have been inserted in the book the most famous portions of the political poems of Tennyson. Certain lines in them express so perfectly some of the maxims of government that they are becoming part of our ordinary language.

In teaching civics, the purpose is not so much to load the pupil with knowledge, as to inspire within him a never-dying interest in the affairs of the nation. Hence, do not ask him to learn by heart such lists as occur under Topics II and XII. Rather let him acquire, through frequent reference, a practical acquaintance with them.

APPENDIX III.

A Brief Bibliography.

This list may be useful to the teacher, as it includes the names of books very easily obtained.

1. Necessary Books.

How Canada is Governed, Bourinot. Contains the British North America Act in full. Price $1.00.

Canadian Almanac for the current year. Contains lists of British and Canadian cabinet ministers, of members of parliament and legislatures, of judges and

sheriffs, and of municipalities and their officers, the customs tariff in full, and an account of the British Army, the British Navy, and the Canadian Militia. The volume for the year 1907 has also a brief description of the forms of government throughout the world. Price 50 cents (paper), 75 cents (bound).

2. Helpful Books.

The English Constitution, Bagehot. Contrasts the British and American systems of government. Price $1.25.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century, Judson. Gives brief accounts of the constitutions of the principal countries of Europe. Price $1.25.

Canadian Citizenship, Millar. Discusses briefly forms of government and modern social problems. Price 60 cents.

School Civics with Civics of New York State, Boynton. Contains the constitutions of the United States and New York. Price $1 00.

3. For More Advanced Study.

American Commonwealth, Bryce, 2 vols. Interesting and invaluable. Price $4.00.

Canadian Annual Review, Hopkins. The volume for each year gives an excellent account of public events. Price $2.50.

Letters of Queen Victoria, 3 vols. Price $1.50.

Life of Gladstone, Morley, 2 vols. Price $3.50.

(These two books shed light on the development of the English constitution in the nineteenth century.)

The Statutes of the Dominion and the Province. Copies of special statutes may sometimes be obtained from the government offices, either *gratis* or on the payment of a small sum.

Canada Year Book, published by the Census and Statistics Office, Ottawa. Contains all kinds of statistical information.

APPENDIX IV.

Subjects for Study.

(For Advanced Pupils.)

TOPIC I.

1. Look up in the dictionary or elsewhere the meaning of the following: aristocracy, aristocratic, democracy, democratic, oligarchy, oligarchic, anarchy, anarchist, socialism, socialist, autocrat, autocracy, autocratic.

2. Find out the names of the rulers of the great powers of the world.

3. Discover something about the government of the countries commonly mentioned in the newspapers.

4. Read the lives of Queen Victoria and Abraham Lincoln.

5. What do you think is the best form of government? Give your reasons.

TOPIC II.

1. To which of the two, the Dominion or the province, belong those powers which are not definitely assigned in

the constitution? Show how our constitution differs from that of the United States in this respect.

2. Discuss the value and dangers of the power of disallowance.

3. Give an account of the negotiations that led up to confederation.

4. "The laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than have the laws of the Dominion." Discuss this statement.

5. Find out what you can about the federal constitutions of the Commonwealth of Australia and the Empire of Germany.

TOPIC III.

1. Give a brief account of the governors-general of Canada since confederation.

2. Compare the duties of the governor-general of Canada with those of the president of the United States and the president of France.

3. What would be the advantages and disadvantages of the appointment of a Canadian as governor-general?

4. Would it be advisable to have the governor-general elected by popular vote?

5. What are the arguments in favour of retaining the Senate?

6. How do you think the Senate could best be "reformed"?

7. What difficulties may arise, if the leader of the government or a large proportion of his cabinet belong to the Senate?

TOPIC IV.

1. Read over the speech from the throne given at the opening of the last session of parliament, and make notes as to its form and contents.

2. What corresponds at Washington to our "speech from the throne"?

3. Give an account of the usual proceedings in the House of Commons on the opening day of the session.

4. Discuss the question of the supremacy of the House of Commons in our system of government.

5. Give an account of the duties of the speaker of the House of Commons.

6. Describe how a debate is conducted in parliament.

7. What are the advantages of committees in the work of the House?

TOPIC V.

1. Trace briefly the origin of the cabinet in English history.

2. Compare our cabinet with the American cabinet.

3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Canadian cabinet as an instrument of government?

4. What difference is there between the position of a premier under our system and that of a president under the American system?

5. What foreign nations have adopted the British cabinet system?

6. Why is it necessary that all members of the cabinet should be in agreement on important questions?

TOPIC VI.

1. Make out a list of important public questions now before the people of Canada.

2. What would be the result in our system of government, if political parties ceased to exist?

3. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of the party system of government?

4. What is a coalition government? Have we ever had a coalition government in the Dominion?

5. What were the platforms of the two parties at the last Dominion elections?

6. Write an article favouring the policy of one of the parties.

TOPIC VII.

1. Find how long the last session of parliament lasted. Indicate briefly what business was done during the session.

2. On what dates and in what years are federal elections held in the United States?

3. What would be the result in our system of government, if elections were held on fixed dates as in the United States?

4. How many parliaments have we had since confederation? Find what was the length of each and the year of dissolution.

5. What are the names of the premiers since confederation? How did each come to give up office?

6. Give an account of a by-election, if one has been held in your constituency recently.

TOPIC VIII.

1. What are the names of the present members of the cabinet and their departments?

2. Describe the system of "patronage" and its evils.

3. Is management by a board of commissioners an advantage in the case of a public enterprise?

4. Give a brief account of our militia system.

5. What difficulties have arisen in connection with the civil service?

6. Discuss the problem of "strikes."

7. Write a brief account of the development of our railway and canal systems.

TOPIC IX.

1. What are the dangers of a heavy national debt? What is the amount of the national debt of Canada?

2. What is the annual expenditure of the Dominion? Mention the important items of the expenditure.

3. Would it be advisable to adopt a system of direct taxation for the Dominion? Give reasons for your answer.

4. Discuss briefly the Canadian tariff question.

5. Make a note of the important points in the last budget speech.

6. How are customs and excise duties collected?

TOPIC X.

1. Tell how you would proceed at the bank in depositing money and in withdrawing it.

2. What are the merits of the Canadian banking system?

TOPIC XI.

1. Who are the members of the provincial executive and what are their departments?

2. What are the policies of the political parties in provincial matters?

3. What are the merits and defects of the system of Dominion subsidies to the provinces?

4. Would it be better if the Dominion and the provincial political parties were entirely separate from each other?

TOPIC XII.

1. What is the name, size and population of your municipality?

2. Write a brief history of your municipality since its organization.

3. Describe its physical features and its industries.

4. Who are the members of the council?

5. Give an account of the last municipal election.

6. What are the important questions in municipal politics?

7. Mention some of the property exempt from taxation in your municipality.

8. What are the chief items in the expenditure of your municipality? What is the amount of the expenditure. Is your municipality in debt?

9. Describe the method of assessment in your municipality.

TOPIC XIII.

1. In what judicial district do you live? Who is the sheriff? Who are the judges of the county court? What is the name of the nearest place where court is usually held?

2. Write a note on the police force of your municipality.

3. Mention an important case that has gone to the Privy Council in England for final decision.

TOPIC XIV.

1. Describe your school and grounds. What was the cost of the building? What improvements are most needed, and how much would they probably cost? What has been the cost of the furniture and equipment of your schoolroom?

2. How much money does your school district (division or section) receive in grants, and what is its expenditure? What is the rate of taxation for school purposes?

3. Where is the nearest high school (collegiate institute or academy)? Tell what you can about it.

4. Give an account of the university or universities of the province, and of the agricultural college.

5. What are the advantages of a good education?

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